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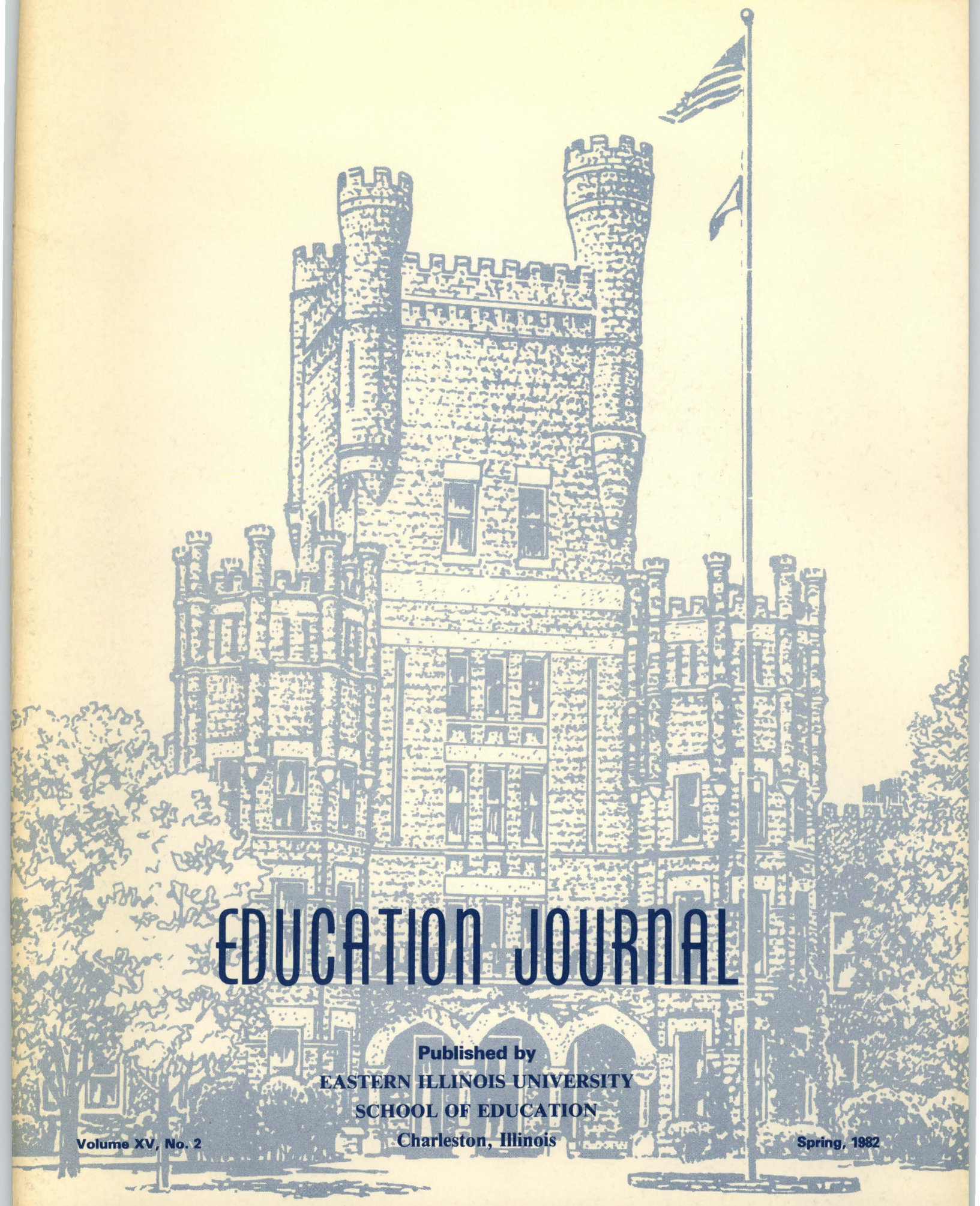

EDUCATION JOURNAL

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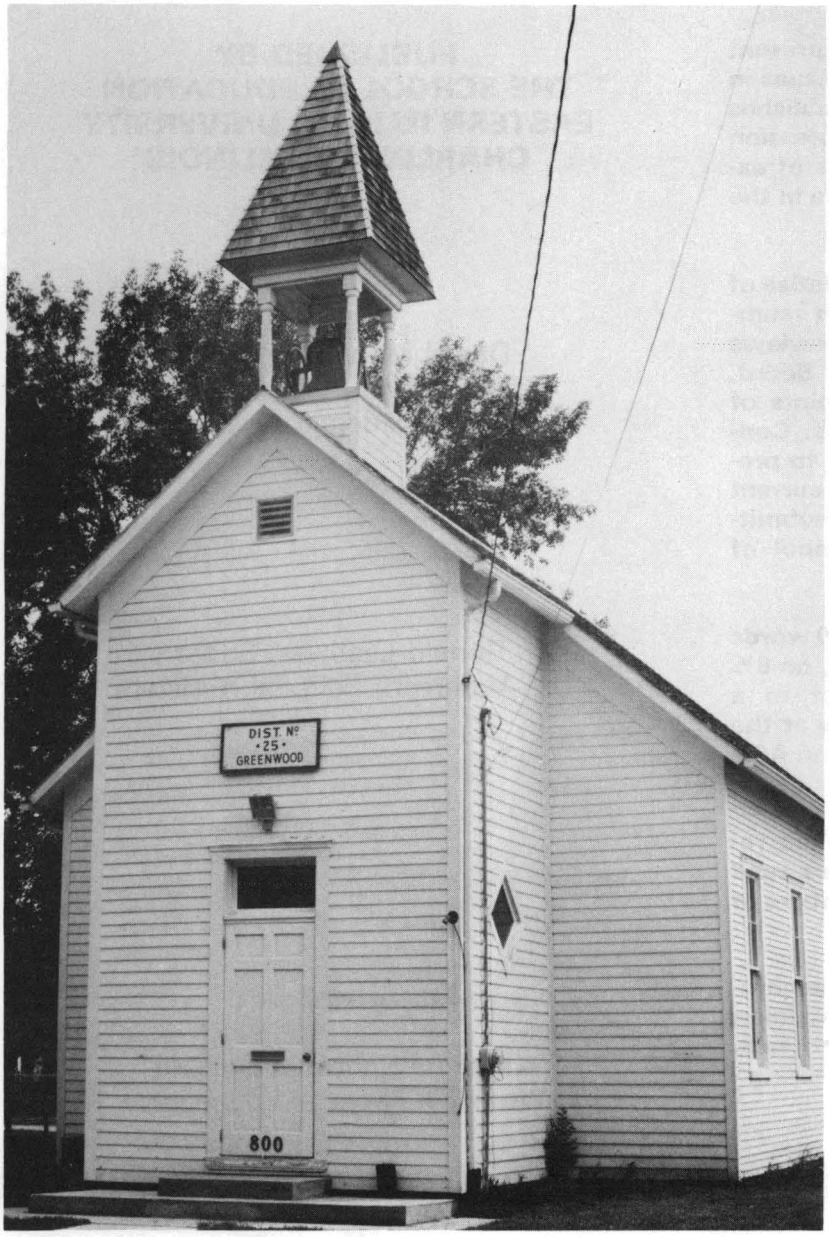

Holding on to a little bit of the past, the Greenwood School Museum offers a glimpse of how life was back in the "good old days." The school was first built between the years of 1856 and 1862 near Ashmore, Illinois. In need of repair, this school was replaced in 1895 with a new white-framed building measuring 36 feet by 24 feet at a cost of $1,039. The one-room schoolhouse averaged 40 students who studied reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, geography, and history with special sessions in morals and manners. Grades 1-8 attended Greenwood School until 1948.

The Charleston Historical Society moved the school in 1975 to its present sight just north of the Buzzard Education Building at Eastern Illinois University. In collaboration with the EIU graduate program in history administration, the historical society presents three major exhibits a year free to the public. The spring and summer exhibits center around different historical themes and the summer exhibit offers a look at the original one-room schoolhouse. The authentic items from the Greenwood School include the bell in the miniature tower, the blackboards, and the floor boards. Items from neighboring schools of the same period complete the summer exhibit. Other special presentations include a January historical film series and a county spelling bee held in February for local fifth graders using the 1905 Coles County Speller.

VOLUME 15 **NUMBER 2**

EASTERN EDUCATION JOURNAL

The Eastern Education Journal seeks to present competent discussions of contemporary issues in education and toward this end generally publishes articles written by persons active in the profession of education who have developed degrees of expertise through preparation and experience in the field.

We are currently soliciting articles. All varieties of manuscript will be accepted. Research summaries, program descriptions, and book reviews are considered worthy; the Editorial Board, however, will give priority to original points of view and strong personal position papers. Controversy is welcome, and the editors hope to present a balance of pro and con articles on current issues in education. Manuscripts must be submitted to the Editor, Ronald Leathers, School of Education, Eastern Illinois University.

1. Manuscript size should be limited to 3000 words or less. It should be typed, double spaced, on 8½ by 11 paper. Footnotes should be kept to a minimum, and all references must appear at the end of the article in format according to the APA publication manual.

2. The original and three legible copies are required; articles accepted for publication are read and approved by a minimum of three members of the Editorial Board.

3. Each manuscript submitted should be accompanied by an identification cover sheet containing the following current information about each author:

a. Name and official title

b. Institutional affiliation

c. Address, including zip code

d. A statement whether or not the article has been previously published or is under consideration by another publication.

PUBLISHED BY
THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

FROM THE EDITOR . . .

One of the problems resulting from our decision to increase publication from two issues per year to three issues each year is the extra strain that it places on our file of articles under consideration for publication. Obviously, we have increased our need for acceptable material by one-third within one year. This, in part, is the reason for the current issue's preponderance of articles by members of the Eastern Illinois University faculty.

For those of you who might read this issue of the *Journal* and be discouraged because it appears that we favor "our own," let us emphasize that nothing could be further from the truth. It is our explicit editorial stand that the *Journal* not be allowed to become merely a "house organ." We now enjoy a respectable regional reputation, and, of course, we aspire to national prominence and recognition as a professional journal presenting competent discussions of contemporary issues in education. Our first priority for article acceptance is *quality:* freshness of idea; thoroughness and scholarship in development; technical accuracy in format and preparation. The second priority is to compose a balanced issue with contributors who represent diverse institutional, professional, and geographic credits. Ideally, each issue will present two or three articles by our own faculty and six to eight articles by authors from outside the Eastern Illinois University community.

This issue seems to contradict the second priority simply because our current backlog of manuscripts did not yield sufficient quality and diversity to satisfy both priorities.

We say this as both an encouragement and a plea to our colleagues everywhere. Our mission is to encourage scholarly productivity as you struggle with the relevant issues of our profession. In that pursuit, our *Journal* is an effective sounding board and a legitimate outlet for your professional efforts. Send us your manuscripts.

In This Issue

In recent years, "values education" has emerged with renewed interest as a topic for discussion in educational journals, conferences, and in-service workshops. Most of this discussion seems to focus on the process of valuing and techniques for implementing values education, however. Rarely do the proponents of values education attempt to analyze the concept with regard to underlying ethical premises. Information about curricula for values education abounds, but a thorough rationale for its existence in public schools is wanting. In our lead VIEWPOINT article, "Values and American Education," Frank Lutz presents his personal rationale for values education by identifying some fundamental value assumptions and clearly articulating the mutual obligation of school and society. Lutz writes, ". . . to be singly concerned with how we operate on students, to the exclusion of how the values of society operate on us, . . . is to stick our heads in the sand, and . . . it is self defeating." His arguments are convincing.

During the past 25 years, spectacular developments have occurred in computer technology which promise to effect equally spectacular influence on the schools. Computer technology is awesome to all, ominous to some, and challenging to most. Many teachers have expressed the fear that they will be replaced by machines, but actual experience thus far indicates that those fears are greatly exaggerated. The more common, and seemingly more justified, fear of computers is the lack of humanness which they represent. Josephine and Robert Barger, in their article, "Why Educational Com-

puters are Here to Stay," refute the proposition that computers are the antithesis of what it means to be human and proceed to demonstrate the fallacy of that "myth" by presenting and defending the computer as the most "natural of human learning instruments."

In the third article, "The Teachers' Role in the Detection of Child Abuse," Thomas McIntyre provides valuable information about an important, timely subject. A review of the literature on child abuse and neglect reveals a dearth of material informing teachers of their rights and responsibilities with respect to this issue, or which specify the signs indicating abuse and neglect. In informing teachers about the course of action they should follow if they suspect mistreatment of one of their students, McIntyre's article provides a valuable service to teachers' knowledge and students' welfare.

In a not totally unrelated article, "Spare the Rod," John Jacobs reviews the literature on the subject of punishment and highlights some observations and theories regarding ramifications of the use and mis-use of punishment as a means of controlling classroom behavior.

In the fifth article, co-authors Thomas Deering and Jerry Whitworth address the debate which has ensued historically concerning the role, use, and function of the Doctor of Education degree in relation to that of the Doctor of Philosophy degree. Interpretation of the meaning of the two degrees has caused misunderstanding and confusion among the lay public and much disagreement among academicians. In "The Doctoral Degree In Education: The Ed.D. Versus the Ph.D.," Deering and Whitworth suggest that the serious financial problems facing higher education could force many institutions to ask whether or not they can afford to offer two doctoral degrees that many see as more similar than different.

The need for specified amounts of pre-student teaching clinical experiences in teacher training programs has been a controversial issue in education for the past several years, due more to the cost of implementing such programs than to the rationale for them. Several states recently have mandated required hours of such experiences as prerequisite to certification, and others are in the process of establishing state requirements. In our sixth article, Editor Ronald Leathers tells the story of the "100 hours" mandate in Illinois and how Eastern Illinois University revised and developed its programs to comply with the requirement. The article is entitled, "Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences: Challenge and Change at Eastern Illinois University."

Lewis Jones provides our readers with a short, tongue-in-cheek (we hope) VIEWPOINT, "On Becoming An Outstanding Teacher and Faculty Member," which is sure to amuse teachers everywhere if the irony of it all doesn't hit too close to home.

The final article in this issue, "Aesthetic Education: What Is It?" defines a cross disciplinary approach to art education which argues for a shift in major focus from developing skills through art production to skills in perception and appreciation of art. Author Douglas Kinnett recounts and analyzes the results of a national survey which he conducted to assess the level of agreement among leaders in the field of aesthetic education on various issues in curriculum.

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The Center for Educational Services . . .
THE CFES REPORT

The Stress Mess: Burning Out Gracefully

Drs. William Kirk, EIU Department of Psychology, and Glen Walter, EIU Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance, began their professional collaboration on the topic of stress and burnout after co-facilitating a workshop in 1978. Since their first workshop in Chicago for the Illinois Guidance and Personnel Association, they have travelled from Boston to Denver to share their interest and expertise with school, clinic, and industrial personnel. They have co-authored two articles entitled, "Education Burnout: Do You Have It?" and "The Teacher Support Group as a Burnout Prevention Strategy." Individually, and together, the two have an impressive record of publications, papers, and workshops aimed at a variety of audiences. Commenting on their popular theme, Kirk and Walter write:

> "While living beside Walden Pond Thoreau wrote, 'The cost of a thing is the amount of life required to be exchanged for it, immediately or in the long run.' This observation seems more valid today than it did a hundred years ago. Members of modern society face a multitude of changes in their personal and professional lives. Cost of living, shrinking earning power, societal and international crises bombard daily living. The pace of living and rate at which problems develop leave little time to adapt to changing society. The consequence is often referred to as 'Stress Mess.' Practically every current major health problem has been linked to stressful living: heart disease, cancer, hypertension, alcoholism, and depression, to name only a few. Is it possible to live happy, healthful, productive lives in contemporary society?"

The authors' professional presentations focus on the consequences of stressful living and strategies to deal with the "stress mess."

EIU: Summer School '82

Summer School 1982 at Eastern Illinois University has "Outreach: Mission for the 80's" as its theme. Classes will meet Monday through Thursday for the concurrent eight and five-week sessions with registration on June 14, 15.

Headlining distinguished visiting faculty workshops is a course on the future of vocational education, August 2-5, with James Galloway, Assistant State Superintendent of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education. Also, "Overcoming Math Anxiety," July 19-22, taught by Ms. Sheila Tobias, the leading authority on the subject; "Adventures in Good Music," June 22-24, taught by Dr. Karl Haas, internationally acclaimed pianist and music critic; "Recent U.S. Foreign Policy, June 28-July 1, taught by Dr. Norman Graebner, University of Virginia; and "Art of Reading Literature as 'Popular Culture,'" July 12-15, taught by Dr. Ray Browne, founder of the popular culture movement will be offered.

Several workshops for graduate credit will be offered either in a four-day late afternoon or a two-day weekend format. They cover such topics as discipline problems, rural education, the brain, science education, botanical field studies, mathematics, handwriting, spelling, economics, music experiences for young children, microcomputers, entrepreneurship, physical education, coaching, treatment of athletic injuries, industrial arts equipment maintenance, and many more.

In addition, there are many regular catalog offerings in education of interest to teachers and administrators. You may register by mail. For information and a copy of the summer bulletin/class schedule, write Dr. Charles Switzer, Director of Summer School, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, IL 61920, or call 217-581-2121.

Summer Intersession is May 17-June 11. Summer Term Eight-Week Session begins June 16 and ends August 12.

New Approach to Summer School Scheduling in Educational Administration

A new approach to class scheduling will be implemented in Educational Administration during the 1982 Summer Session. All classes in the M.S. in Education program will be offered on Mondays and Wednesdays during the eight-week session. Classes will begin at 8:00 a.m. and run throughout the day with the last class scheduled from 7:00 p.m. to 10:20 p.m. Two classes in the Specialist in Education program will be offered on Tuesdays and Thursdays during the eight-week session from 7:30 a.m. to 1:00 p.m.

Proposed Revised Programs in Instructional Media/Library Science

Throughout the current year, staff members of the Department of School Service Personnel have been planning revisions in the Master's and Specialist Degree Programs in Instructional Media/Library Science. The proposed titles of the revised programs are M.S. in Education with a major in Information Services and Technology and Specialist in Education with a major in Curriculum, Instruction, and Technology. The department plans to seek approval of these revised programs, which will combine the areas of Instructional Media and Library Science, from the University Administration and the Illinois State Teacher Certification Board. If these revised programs are approved, they should be established by the 1983 Fall Semester.

Administrator's Round Table

The Administrator's Round Table of Eastern Illinois normally presents four programs during the academic year. The organization was developed to provide inservice for principals, superintendents, and other central office administrators. Programs are centered around current topics that are of concern to area administrators.

Three meetings have taken place at this point in the school year. The first meeting, on October 21, 1981, dealt with two topics: a panel discussion on, "Contracting for School Services: Pro and Con," and a presentation entitled, "Negotiation Services by the Illinois Association of School Boards, House Bill 701, and the Future of Teacher Negotiations," given by the luncheon speaker, Al Woodson from the Illinois Association of School Boards. The second meeting took place on January 20, 1982. Activity centered around a group presentation on "Procedures in Teacher Recruitment" in the morning; and at the luncheon, Tom Miller, an attorney from Monticello, addressed the topic, "Reduction in Force: Do's and Don'ts." The third meeting, held on March 17, 1982, concerned orientation of new board of education members and future concerns in school finance.

Educational Administration Advisory Committee

The annual meeting of the Educational Administration Advisory Committee was held on April 20, 1982. This committee, composed of school administrators in the EIU geographic area and graduates of EIU programs in Educational Administration, provides advice and guidance to the staff concerning program and course content. Dr. William Hill, Superintendent, Charleston Community Unit School District No. 1, is the current chairperson of the committee.

New Course — Educational Administration 6700 (Planning and Evaluation of Instructional Programs)

The Graduate School recently approved a new course, EDA 6700, which was developed and will be taught by Dr. David E. Bartz. This course, as well as EDA 6870, Professional Negotiations, will be required for the Superintendent's Endorsement for all Educational Administration students who file their programs of study for the Specialist Degree after August, 1982. Master's Degree students in Educational Administration may take either of these courses as an elective. EDA 6700 will be offered for the first time during the 1983 Fall Semester.

Brulle Publishes Article, 3 Papers Accepted

Dr. Andrew Brulle of the Department of Special Education at EIU, has had an article entitled, "Basic Computational Facts: A Problem and a Procedure" published in the March issue of the *Arithmetic Teacher*.

Dr. Brulle has also been notified that his paper entitled, "The Use of Normative Data as an Objective Means to Select the Least Restrictive Environment for Individual Children" has been accepted for presentation at the Spring Conference of the Illinois Council for Exceptional Children; his article entitled, "Naturalistic Studies of Institutionalized Retarded Persons: III: The Effects of the Behavior of Retarded Persons on Other Retarded Persons and Staff" has been accepted for publication in *Mental Retardation Bulletin*; and his paper entitled, "The Use of Social Comparison Techniques to Assist in Placement Decisions" has been accepted for presentation at the Global Congress on the Future of Mental Retardation. This conference will be held in Toronto August 22-26, 1982.

Lanman, Ruyle Present Program at Annual ATE Meeting

Marjorie Lanman and Wanda Ruyle, student teaching coordinators at EIU, presented a program entitled, "Multi-track Student Selected Teacher Education Program" at the annual meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators in Phoenix February 14. Dr. Francis Summers, EIU Director of Student Teaching, was appointed to the ATE National Standards and Performance Committee and also attended the conference.

Lanman, Ruyle and Summers presented the same program at the ATE Indiana Unit in Terre Haute March 26-27.

Education Deans Present Paper At Annual AACTE Meeting

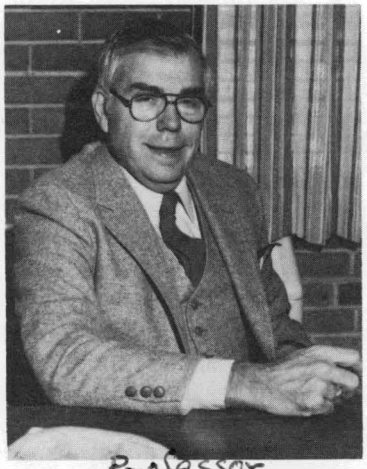
Frank Lutz, Dean of Education and Ronald Leathers, Assistant Dean of Education presented a paper entitled, "A Preliminary Assessment of the 100 Hours Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences Program at Eastern Illinois University," at the annual meeting of the American Association of colleges for Teacher Education in Houston on February 19. The two presenters shared the results of their recently completed research project which attempts to discover the extent to which the objectives of the Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences Program as stated by the Illinois State Board of Education and their State Teacher Certification Board are being accomplished by the approved programs at Eastern.

Bargers Present Paper at New Technology Conference

Robert N. Barger of the Department of Secondary Education and Foundations and Josephine C. Barger of the Academic Assistance Center recently presented a paper at the New Technology in Higher Education Conference in Atlanta. The title of the paper was, "The Computer as a Humanizing Influence in Higher Education."

Viewpoint. . .
Values and American Education

Frank W. Lutz



Frank W. Lutz is ~~presently Dean~~ Professor, School of Education, at Eastern Illinois University. He has previously been on the faculties of Pennsylvania State University, New York University, New Mexico University, and Washington University (St. Louis). He has authored 60 articles, 14 chapters in books, and 8 books in education.

The question of values education is receiving increasing attention again. The Illinois State Board of Education and the Illinois Curriculum Council have given the matter considerable attention during the past year and the superintendent of education has initiated a state thrust in the area. Nationally the "moral majority", the Neo Monkey Trial in Arkansas and Reagan's moves and counter moves regarding the tax status of certain religious oriented universities has brought the matter to national prominence.

Often the matter concerns what we teach children and where we teach it. In such a way we educators focus on others. It assumes the learning process is confined to an intentional act on the part of the teacher in the classroom and an appropriate response on the part of the pupil. This is a comfortable approach, for it holds us responsible for what we *tell* others to do and not for our own behavior and what that behavior tells those others. Thus government, from the President's office to the superintendent's office, from the National Congress to the local school board is more comfortable in telling pupils, "Do what I say, not what I do."

But children and adults learn values in the darndest places, for learning and education is a life long experience. Values are acquired, whether we like it or not, not only in the family, schools and churches, but also when watching T.V., in the streets, clubs, work places, movie theaters, and concert halls. They are also acquired in the game arcades, parking lots, hospitals, battle fields and prisons. They are acquired in art museums and libraries, but also in traffic jams and at taverns and at the beer and pot parties attended by our youth. All that we hear and see as long as we live affects values for learning is a life long experience.

Is it possible for us to teach one set of values to our youth (in the classroom) and live another in our national and public lives? James says, in Chapter 3, verse 15 through 17, "If a brother or sister be naked and destitute of daily food, and one of you say unto them, Depart in peace, be ye warmed and filled; notwithstanding ye give them not those things which are needful to the body: what doth it profit, Even so faith if it hath not works is dead." Tillich contends that faith is our ultimate concern. What we are ultimately concerned with we surely centrally value. Therefore, I submit, our values, without the behaviors that operationalize them, are dead, worthless. We, as educators, and our elected officials publically exhibit what we value by what we do and that often flies in the face of what we say. As educators we might begin at home, with public education. What do we do about public education; where do we stand?

If we say that we value public education in American society and fail to support public education, then I say — we do not value public education! Lloyd Warner, the famous sociologist to *Jonesville, U.S.A.* and *The Yankee City Series* has noted about the values of the American people regarding public education — as long as it didn't cost too much money." What does the society value when we increase budgets in order to amplify our capacity to destroy mankind while at the same time we suggest that a spoonful of ketchup is a sufficient vegetable in school lunch, that handicapped and retarded children must receive reduced services, that dependent children can go hungry and without clothing, and our youth in general are not worth the investments previously made in them??

When we speak of values we allude to commitment or obligation. Yet when faced with facts about school age populations, often we deny the schools' obligation to become concerned with the problems that cry out given those data. Given the data about chemical users and abusers among school populations, what is our usual response? Frequently we hear, "That's not a problem in our school!" If by that we mean we don't sell drugs or alcohol at the end of the lunch counter, then we are correct. We alone have not created the problem. If we mean, however, that it is not a problem for signifi-

cant numbers of school pupils, we either deny empirical reality or we deliberately fail to see it.

Other problems that must be faced by the schools include divorce, single parenting, and child abuse and spouse abuse, to mention a few. What are our values about proactively confronting these issues that come actively into our schools affecting curriculum and learning in the schools? More often than not we have concluded these things are not school problems because as a profession we value survival more than service, constraint more than conflict, and peace more than plaguey.

Lest I be misunderstood, I do not single out educators as the single group which has a "flexible" and "convenient" value system. What of physicians who perform millions of dollars of needless and useless surgery, attorneys who collect fees without reasonable representation, chemists who create compounds without considering the environmental result of their use, police who deal in crime and drugs, and politicians who take bribes? What of a political party which announces on the one hand that schools and welfare programs must tighten their belts and on the other hand pledges to build all the prisons necessary to incarcerate criminals who it avows are criminals simply because they *choose* a life of crime. I for one am reminded of Mr. Scrooge's response to the request for a donation to the poor and hungry: "Are there not workhouses? Are there not prisons?"

But the complaint here is not with a single profession or a single party. Let us remember where the responsibility lies. Mr. Reagan reminds us, and the Congress, that he is but carrying out "the mandate of the people." Perhaps he is correct. Perhaps these are the values of our society. Certainly the schools alone are not responsible for all that is wrong in the world. But just as certainly, the schools are not guiltless. Is not the lack of the proactive assumption of some of the responsibility — irresponsible?

But what, one may ask, has this to do with values education and teaching and learning values in school? How do we learn values? Values are acquired in many and mysterious ways. That is why we cannot afford to ignore values in the public schools, not in our pedagogy, not in our policies, not in our profession, and not in our politics. To make a decision *not* to deal with values is a value and will have its consequences. Amoral is not perhaps immoral, but it is certainly not moral. Education, if it is anything, is the process of learning how to seek alternatives, deal with the choices, and then decide on one alternative as opposed to another. This process requires an operationalized set of values — a morality.

How might we change values? Perhaps this question is best divided into questions. How are our values changed? How can we change the values of others? We change our values by becoming exposed to new ideas, attitudes, philosophies, mores, and customs. Further, we must encounter these new things in a setting that reinforces and rewards us for approaching, trying on, and finally adopting these new values. If we find we are better off in some way due to these new values, we tend to continue with them and eventually we integrate them into our life patterns. Many things contribute to this process. Finding ourselves in a new group where we want to, or must, stay creates the situation for the adoption of new values. Sometimes very painful experiences cause us to reject old values and at least consider new values. Most of the time the stimulus for the value change is extrinsic rather than intrinsic.

The above provides the springboard for the possibility of changing the values of others. Only in this situation, we are the change agents. *We* are the extrinsic force. But what can we as individuals do about the difficult situations involving values in or about public education? We can become the exogenous force. We can supply the initiation of the new value, the new idea, by word and by deed. We can verbally formulate the new value and behaviorally model it. Furthermore, we can reinforce those who adopt it and fail to positively reinforce those who don't. We can stop laughing at racial and ethnic jokes. We can stop telling "the good old boys and girls" who you know are not doing a good job of teaching how much they are needed on the faculty. We can stop siding with what we know is wrong just for the sake of conformity and acceptance. We can take the opportunities we get and do what we can.

Which are "good" values? The important thing is not to teach which are "good", but how to determine which are "good" values. We define for ourselves which are "good" values because most often *our* values are "good" values by definition. This is a good deal more comfortable than adopting "good" values as our values. Good values are a personal thing at that level. But at another level, good values are public and pervasive because what *you* value affects me and society. What *we* value affects politics, policies, and public schools.

Can we make a value-free decision? *Absolutely not*! We can indicate in a value-free way that if one wants X, then one must do Y; or if one wants A, then one must do B. But without values, we cannot decide whether we want Y or B or, if we do, whether we are willing to do X or A in order to acquire them. One cannot obtain a value-free education. It, therefore, attends not if the schools should teach about values because even by deciding not to teach values, they teach a value. Rather, the question is *how* the schools teach about values.

Let me try to summarize. (1) I believe it extremely important that education deal with values. I personally prefer that we not teach values but teach *about* valuing, how to reach decisions, and how the results of those decisions are likely to have an effect on self and society. (2) Our incessant concern about the value development of students seems to suffocate the same proactive concern for the values of our profession. (3) The system on values in our culture, particularly as they encompass education, constrains us and often discourages us individually and collectively. This fact not only fails to free us from individual and professional responsibility but actually incriminates us. Writing in *The New Republic* recently, Diane Ravitch states that "we get the schools

we deserve." I couldn't agree more. Particularly in this nation and particularly in public education, we have a say if we want to say. To assert that an issue is not a school issue and, therefore, something for which we bear no responsibility, is a value decision and, therefore is our responsibility.

The public schools touch a larger percentage of our population than any other single institution in the nation. They touch more people than the institution called the nuclear family (for 50% or more of marriages end up in divorce). They touch more lives than the churches, more than the hospitals, the courts, the prisons, or the military. While all of these institutions shape values, none has the same opportunity as do the public schools. We can not do it alone. We cannot be as effective as we might given the lack of public support. We cannot get public support by being passive rather than being proactive.

Should we be concerned about values and American education? You bet! Nothing is, to my mind, more important. But to be singly concerned with how we operate on students, to the exclusion of how the values of the society operate on us, or how we individually and as a profession affect the values of society is to stick our heads in the sand and, perhaps more importantly, it is self defeating.

I might be better off to concern myself with what we should do to others' values instead of what we must do about our own. In such a way I might survive longer; I certainly would exercise more constraint and leave my renders with greater peace of mind. But would it be of greater service not to stir the conflict or create the turmoil? I truly cannot say with any surety. I do believe it would be sticking my head in the sand and in the end be self defeating for education in the American society.

Let me conclude with an account of a true story. A first grade boy was having great difficulty learning to read or do any of the required school work. He was often late to school and he was a behavioral problem. The school's attempts to get the family's cooperation were met with no response. The student teacher had recounted these problems to the university supervisor.

One afternoon the supervisor was parked in front of the school reviewing her notes before entering. She saw a very elderly woman shuffling up the sidewalk from the bus stop several blocks away. The old woman walked up to the school door and tried to enter but she could not for she was literally too weak to pull the door open.

The supervisor left her car and opened the door for the woman and inquired if the woman needed help. It turned out that she was the 88-year-old great-grandmother of the first grader having problems. His immediate family had broken apart during the first few months of school and he was now living with his great-grandmother, as had 23 of her great-grandchildren, grandchildren, nieces, and nephews. This was the first letter she had received about the boy's problems and she had come on public transportation to see if she could help. The great-grandmother said, "I'm 88 years old and I just ask one thing of God — that I can help Jimmy learn to read.

Ask yourself what values are explicit and implicit in this brief event. What values exist in that community? What national values related to dependent children and aging may be present? What values about poverty are affecting the situation? What values about parent participation might have been assumed by the school and how might these have been affected by this event?

Values cannot be treated in isolation. National, community, family, individual, and professional values all affect one another and all affect any decision or action in the life-long education process. With every action we take in the schools, we teach about values. That is why there is no more important issue than the issue of values *and* education. There is no more all encompassing process than the relationship of value development and valuing as it becomes operationalized in our society.

EIU Educators Invited to Army Community Educator Tour Program

The Department of the Army recently announced its invitations to several EIU faculty members to participate in its community educator tour program. Invited to participate were Dean Frank W. Lutz, Dr. Harry R. Larson and Ronald Leathers of the School of Education and Dr. Frank R. Trocki from the School of Technology. The purpose of the tour program, held April 26-28, 1982 at Fort Knox, KY, was to familiarize educators with Army's training philosophy, training development, facilities and Education Center system. All expenses during the tour were reimbursed by the Army.

ACEI Mini-Conference: "Is My Communication Behavior Showing?"

A conference on nonverbal communication was held March 17 at EIU. Dr. James Weigland, Dean of Continuing Studies at Indiana University, spoke on the theme, "Is My Communication Behavior Showing?" This presentation dealt with the basis of nonverbal power, planned and unplanned nonverbal communication, and the importance of perception to the communication process. This mini-conference was sponsored by Eastern's branch of ACEI, the Department of Elementary and Junior High School Education, and the Center for Educational Services.

Why Educational Computers are Here to Stay

Robert N. and Josephine C. Barger

Robert N. Barger is Associate Professor of Education at Eastern Illinois University. His teaching and research interests are in the area of Educational Foundations. Josephine C. Barger is Academic Advisor in the Academic Assistance Center at Eastern Illinois University. Currently, the Bargers are collaborating on several projects regarding the humanizing potential of computer technology in education.

From the beginning of time until 1980 there have only been about one million computers in existence. But in 1982, one manufacturer alone will be producing one million computers in a single year (Pollack, 1981). Other manufacturers will be producing millions more. Even considering that the first electronic computer was produced in 1945, this recent exponential increase in production has been nothing short of incredible. By the end of this decade, the number of people employed in the main types of computer occupations will have grown more than 50% (Schmidt, 1982). In the face of these facts, we think that most people will admit that the computer revolution is having an impact on our society equal to that of the industrial revolution. In other words, the computer is no more likely to disappear from the scene than is the machine.

But what about the computer in education? Is the *educational* computer here to stay? Consider this prediction by Alfred Bork (1979), a Physics professor at the University of California at Irvine who has done pioneering work with educational computers: "By the year 2000 the *major* way of learning at all levels, and in almost all subject areas will be through the interactive use of computers." The year 2000 is only eighteen years away. What is it about the computer that makes Professor Bork think that, in this short space of time, the computer will become the major instrument of learning?

We believe that the reason is that, physiologically and psychologically, the computer is the most natural of human learning instruments. Consider that the computer is basically a replica of the human nervous system. It has an electrical system that provides input and output, much as does the human neural system which is electrical in operation. The computer's central processing unit and its memory are patterned on the human brain, which is essentially an information processing, regulating, and storage device. Indeed, we may soon have a combination of the brain and the computer. For, with the rapidly developing technology of the silicon micro-chip, it will soon be possible to surgically implant in the brain a chip which contains all of the accumulated knowledge of the human race. Although this sounds fantastic now, this development should be as easily accepted as the developments of the contact lens and the pacemaker.

Computers are currently portrayed as the antithesis of what it means to be human. They are shown as cold steel structures driven by high technology electronics, able to perform incredible feats with lightning speed. They evidence no emotion. They do not tire. And, as computer experts are fond of saying, they *never* make mistakes. What could be less human?

The personification of the inhuman computer is "Hal," the villain of the now-classic film "2001: A Space

Odyssey." As the on-board computer for a space flight at the turn of the twenty-first century, Hal begins to take on a life of his own and is only stopped from subverting the flight's mission when the human crew wins a hard-fought battle against him and succeeds in "pulling his plug." It is a thrilling story, worthy of rank with the triumphal sagas of man against the elements, man against the organization, and now, finally, man against that ultimate machine, the computer.

Such is the myth of the computer. But we believe that the myth is false. The computer is not the natural enemy of man. Quite the opposite! Many humanists will consider what we are about to say to be heresy. But let us state the "heresy" boldly: Properly programmed, the computer can show people what it means to be human and can help them to become more human. We want to emphasize, however, that the element of human control over the computer is critically important. Computer hardware can never be better than its designer and computer software can never be better than its programmer.

Now, if we are to escape the fires of a humanistic *auto-da-fe*, we must list what we consider to be the essential characteristics of the human condition and show how these can be enhanced by the computer.

We think that being fully human means possessing the traits of autonomy, individuality, rationality, affectiveness, responsiveness, and creativity. We will examine each of these traits in turn to see how they might be enhanced by the computer.

Autonomy

If computers are soon to become as omnipresent as telephones and television sets, then a facility in their use will be necessary for human autonomy. By autonomy we mean control of one's own aims and purposes.

Plato once said that a slave is one who carries out another's purposes. Jefferson, more recently, stated that a basically educated citizenry is necessary to safeguard that citizenry's freedom. If a technical elite is not to gain tyranny over the common person, much as literary elites have done in earlier times, then computer "literacy" will be as essential to human autonomy in the future as was a knowledge of reading and writing in the past. Perhaps what we need today is another Horace Mann to promote computer education.

Also, the meaning of what it is to "know" has changed in this era of the information explosion. What you "knew" previously meant what you had in your head. Now what you "know" is what you have the ability to access from outside of yourself. In this environment, an ignorance of the computer and its use may soon mean the sacrifice of human autonomy.

Individuality

All students do not learn at the same rate. Unfortunately, traditional classroom instruction cannot easily take this fact into account, but the computer can. With the computer students can pace themselves. They can linger over material that they need more time to absorb or they can speed through material that they readily understand. In fact, with the computer it is possible either to branch a student to remedial material or to move the student ahead to more advanced material on the basis of the student's responses. Also with the computer students can be allowed choice regarding the path they take through a lesson and the format in which they study it. In traditional instruction, the instructor might use different examples from semester to semester in a course, or might teach the course in a radically different manner each time, but the students could only experience it in one way during any given semester. However, with the computer students could be offered a number of optional approaches to the same material.

Some educators worry that the computer might promote social isolation since it is such a one-to-one instrument. This concern does not seem to be born out in fact, however. *The New York Times* (April 4, 1982) reports: "Many teachers say that contrary to their initial expectations, computers tend to promote conversation and cooperation among students rather than isolation and introspection, especially if the machines are placed in clusters. Invariably, an underground network will develop in which students pass around interesting programs and computer tricks that they have discovered."

A final point concerning individuality involves the time and place for instruction. Instead of being restricted to a scheduled time and place, as is the case with traditional classroom instruction, the student could use computer assisted instruction at almost any hour and at any number of terminal locations. In some schools it is possible to check out a portable terminal and dial into a time-sharing computer from any location which has a telephone. With microcomputers, mobility is even less limited. All that is needed for their use is a suitable power source, such as an electrical outlet.

Rationality

Computers are valuable tools for teaching students how to think. In order to program a computer, a student must begin by schematically outlining the steps for the operation which the computer is to perform. Then the student must decide how to code these steps into lines of instruction in a language which the computer can understand. All of this involves the use of the problem-solving method or, to put it more simply, logical thinking. This does not mean, be it noted, an exercise in abstract theorizing. The student is involved with solving a concrete programming probelm. If it is true, as educators from Pestalozzi to Dewey have claimed, that students learn by using a combination of thinking and doing, then the computer is a most efficient tool for helping students to sharpen their intellectual skills.

There is currently a discussion among educators as to whether students need only be taught how to operate computers or whether they also need to be taught how to program them. We feel it is essential to teach some minimum programming skills. For, to teach a student how to operate a computer without also teaching pro-

gramming is like teaching a student how to read without also teaching writing. There is an old story that says: give someone a fish and they will eat for a day, but teach someone how to fish and they will eat for a lifetime. We believe that a similar situation exists in teaching programming skills. The need for a modicum of independence and autonomy in the coming programmer-dominated age makes this skill a necessity. Thus, we include some minimal programming ability in our understanding of what it is to be computer literate. We might add that it is particularly necessary for those who are going to be teachers to be computer literate. A recent survey has shown that at least 15,000 of the nation's 100,000 elementary and secondary schools are already using microcomputers as teaching tools. This has "resulted in traditional concepts of authority being called into question because students often know more than their teachers about computer-related problems. (Fiske, 1982)"

Affectiveness

Affectiveness, as used here, means the quality of possessing emotions. It is this human quality which gives rise to the educational concerns of interest and motivation. Clearly, the computer is a good motivator. Many teachers regularly allow use of it as a means of reward for students. Students have even been known to break into school after hours in order to use it. What is it about the computer which motivates students so highly? One thing seems to be its ability to *involve* students. It appeals to a number of the senses, most often those of sight, touch, and sound. In particular, the graphics capability of the computer is a powerful motivator. If a picture is worth a thousand words, and if many students are more visually oriented than aurally oriented, then it is easy to see why this aspect of the computer is so engaging. Moreover, computer graphics need not be presented ready-made and static, as in a book. They can be drawn by the computer as the student watches. It is this dynamic aspect of the computer which is one of its most appealing features.

Responsiveness

It has often been said that learning is an active process. The teacher can teach all day, but if there is no response on the part of the student then no learning will take place. In the traditional classroom it is possible for the student to avoid this dialogical process, but on the computer it is not. The student must enter a response through the computer terminal at critical points in the program or the program will not proceed. It is no accident that the premier computer education system in the world was named PLATO after that famous teacher who (along with his mentor Socrates) believed in producing learning in the student through a process of dialogue.

Not only does the student learn through computer dialogue, but in writing a computer dialogue the instructor may learn even more than the student who uses it. In the process of building a dialogue, the instructor must visualize the lesson from the students' viewpoint and must think of program responses to all possible wrong answers which might be given by the student as well as responses to right answers. In fact, in writing a good dialogue the instructor will probably spend more time programming responses for wrong answers than for right ones. This can be a learning experience even for the instructor who is quite advanced in his or her subject area. Also, the practice of soliciting student critique on the instructor's programs can be an occasion for added learning for both the student and the instructor.

Another aspect of responsiveness on the computer is that the student gets immediate feedback on his or her answers. In giving tests on the computer, incorrect answers can be immediately remedied. This allows testing to become a learning process for the student, rather than simply an evaluation process so that the instructor can arrive at a grade. Also, correct answers can be immediately reinforced and the student can be psychologically rewarded and encouraged to continue. Whether the answers are correct or incorrect, the student's response is instantly evaluated and immediate branching is possible to either remedial or advanced material consistent with the student's demonstrated ability.

The solution of computer-posed problems on a step-by-step basis also allows the student to obtain information for a response as he or she sees the need for it, instead of having the information provided all at once ahead of time in a lecture mode when the significance of the information might not be appreciated by the student.

Finally, the computer can provide simulations of situations. The student can then experiment with these situations. This is particularly valuable because of the expense, difficulty, or danger of creating these situations in real life. Examples would include learning to fly an airplane, learning to control environmental pollution, and learning to perform surgery on a patient. In the latter case, one surgeon has pointed out that an advantage of computer simulation is that "mistakes are made on a computer and not on a patient (Friedman, et al., 1978)."

Creativity

The computer encourages creativity because it is open to a great variety of programming possibilities. Not only does it give students a number of options for handling learning material and doing their own creative programming, but it also gives instructors a wide choice of possibilities for presenting material. The multisensory capabilities of the computer which were previously discussed could be mentioned again here. Also, the computer indirectly encourages creativity by taking care of "drudge" work such as drill and record-keeping and thus frees time for more creative work.

Conclusion

If the computer fits in so well with human traits, then why are some teachers wary of it? Two basic responses seem to answer this question.

First, some teachers are unaware of the humanizing possibilities of the computer. They may be familiar with the shortcomings of teaching machines of the past and may feel that the computer is just one more of these machines. If the foregoing observations have not already been persuasive of an opposite view, perhaps the comment of the noted computer scientist and educator Thomas Dwyer (1975) might be impressive: "We have found that computing, placed in the hands of well-supported teachers and students, can be an agent for catalyzing educational accomplishment of a kind that is without precedent. We believe that there has simply been no other tool like it in the history of education."

Second, some teachers have themselves been highly successful under the traditional instructional system and hence tend to react to what they suspect might make for radical changes in this system. The computer may indeed make for some radical changes, but if these changes will result in more effective learning and a more humanized style of education then the computer is not to be feared.

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National Teacher Education Organization Calls for Restructuring Accreditation System

The Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU), an organization of deans of education from state colleges and universities, reaffirmed its commitment to national accreditation but called recently for a major restructuring of the accreditation process for teacher education. The education deans, at their annual meeting in Houston, criticized the present system of voluntary accreditation by a national organization and mandatory approval by states as being unduly costly, redundant, and lacking safeguards to assure that only graduates of accredited, quality programs be certificated to enter the teaching profession.

The deans passed a resolution calling for two levels of accreditation of teacher education. The first level, to include institutional site visits and accreditation decisions, was seen by the deans to be the responsibility of the various states. The second level, to include the development of standards for accreditation and the monitoring of the processes used by the various states, was recommended by the deans to be the responsibility of a national, non-governmental accrediting agency. This would ensure that all teacher education institutions would come under national scrutiny.

Dr. Richard Ishler, Dean of the School of Education and Psychology at Emporia State University (Kansas) and President of TECSCU, said that the resolution was an outgrowth of several factors including the increasing public concern that only the most able individuals be certificated to teach, the membership's conviction that accreditation costs were becoming increasingly burdensome, and, perhaps most important, the belief that accreditation visits at both the state and national levels were redundant and wasteful of time and effort.

Ishler pointed out that the recent action was intended to provoke discussion with other constituencies of professional personnel preparation, particularly other higher education groups, the organized teaching profession, and appropriate government agencies. He added that the association expects no immediate changes as a result of the resolution, but the fact that the organization has taken a position may encourage other significant constituencies to take similar action. TECSCU will, according to Ishler, continue to publicize their action and to encourage other organizations to join in its efforts to restructure accreditation of teacher education.

Teacher Strategy Focus of Mini-Conference

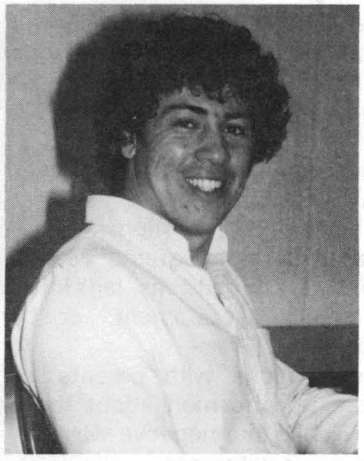
A mini-conference entitled, "Teachers sharing ideas with teachers: Strategies for teaching students with special needs" was held at EIU March 20. Speakers at the conference included area teachers and educational personnel who presented methods and techniques for educating students with various handicaps or exceptionalities. A keynote address entitled, "Teacher Burnout: Myth or Reality?" was presented by Dr. Priscilla Presley of the Department of Special Education at SIU-Carbondale.

Jacobs Paper Accepted By Social Aspects of Deafness Conference

Dr. John Jacobs, Chair of the EIU Department of Special Education, has been notified that his paper entitled, "Issues in Research Methodology in Language Acquisition and Hearing Impairment" has been accepted for presentation at the Conference on the Social Aspects of Deafness. The conference, sponsored by Gallaudet College, will be held in Washington, D.C.

The Teachers' Role in the Detection of Child Abuse

Thomas McIntyre



Thomas McIntyre is an assistant professor in the Eastern Illinois University Department of Special Education. He received his doctorate at the University of Connecticut where he conducted research concerning personality variables in teacher burnout. He is presently researching teacher awareness of child abuse.

The physical, emotional, and sexual mistreatment of children has become a social ill of massive proportion. Although exact incidence figures are not known, it is believed that each year nearly one million children become the victims of maltreatment. It is estimated that 100,000 to 200,000 of these children are physically abused; 60,000 to 100,000 are sexually abused; and many thousands of others are subjected to other forms of abuse and neglect. Over two thousand youngsters die each year from situations which suggest abuse or neglect (Broadhurst, 1978).

Educators are an important link in the identification process in that schools provide an environment where children are seen daily by professionals familiar with standards of child behavior and appearance. Mandatory attendance laws require that all children attend school, thus pointing to the importance of the teacher and other school staff in detection of abuse and neglect. In fact, detection of child abuse and neglect within the school setting becomes paramount in importance when one considers that over one-half of all maltreated children are of school age, and that three-quarters of this group are pre-adolescent. Traditionally, however, schools have a poor record of detection and reporting. Only one-third of reported cases are initiated by schools, with one state's schools reporting only 8% of total cases (The American Humane Society, 1971).

What then are the legal rights and responsibilities of teachers when faced with evidence pointing to abuse or neglect? What are the signs and signals which require action on the part of educators? The answers to these questions must become known to all educators if an effective network for the detection of abuse or neglect is to become reality.

An abused or neglected child is defined as "a child whose physical or mental health or welfare is harmed or threatened with harm by acts or omissions of his parents or other persons responsible for his welfare" (Broadhurst, 1978). By the middle 1970s all fifty states, the District of Columbia, and three United States territories had enacted legislation mandating the reporting of suspected maltreatment of children. A good number of states have penalties for failing to report suspected child abuse or neglect, with fines up to $1,000 and/or prison sentences of up to one year. Educators in particular are required by law to make reports in most states. Included in this group are teachers, principals, counselors, nurses, and the staffs of residential institutions, summer camps, and day care centers. Many states also require reporting by school support staff: aides, custodians, busdrivers, and others. No state, however, requires proof of the abuse or neglect which is believed to have occurred, and all states provide immunity from criminal penalty or civil liability provided the report was entered in good faith.

Ideally, a school system is involved in a coordinated multi-agency interaction with other community organizations including police, health services, PTOs, and social service agencies. An efficient, delineated referral process by which maltreatment is reported by school staff should also be in effect in the schools. Realistically, this is not usually the case, since only 25% of schools have reporting policies (Schmitt, 1975). Due to a variety of reasons, school board officials and school administrators may knowingly avoid the abuse and neglect issue. They may see it as being peripheral to their major concern of academics, another responsibility on an already overburdened staff, more red tape, or may perhaps feel apprehension at the possibility of parental reaction to a maltreatment accusation. Teachers may dread the possibility of hostile parental response, fear a break in the student-teacher relationship, dismay at the thought of worsening the home situation, or become discouraged by supervisory inaction.

To serve as a child advocate, the teacher must be committed to action directed toward resolving the abusing or neglectful family situation. Using the collective in-

fluence exerted by a teachers union, or gaining the backing of parent or community groups, the following strategies are possible: form a child protection team with schools as one part of a multi-disciplinary approach; provide information and courses to secondary level students which include information on child development, parenting skills, stress management, nutrition, and family planning; set up workshops for parents to assist them in developing parenting skills; start child care programs staffed partly by students in order to provide actual experience for the students while providing respite for parents; and lastly, inservice sessions to provide teachers with more indepth information regarding various aspects of abuse and neglect.

If a teacher does not have the organizational support alluded to above, what is he or she to do when confronted by evidence suggesting ill-treatment? A number of recommendations presented below provide guidelines which should be useful in helping educators plan a course of action. They are:

A. Be aware of the signs suggestive of the various types of child abuse.

Physical Abuse

- unexplained bruises or welts, often clustered or forming regular patterns, in various stages of healing (indicating repeated abuse)
- unexplained burns suggestive of smoking materials, hot items (iron, stove burner), or immersion in hot liquids
- unexplained fractures, often to the facial area, or swollen and tender joints in limbs
- unexplained lacerations, abrasions or contusions
- unexplained injuries in the abdominal area (tenderness, swelling, pain, vomiting)
- human bite marks, especially if they are adult in size, or appear often
- repeated injuries
- a child is truly fearful of parental discipline, fears adults, or is afraid to return home from school
- injuries reflective of instrument used (belt buckle, iron, rope or cord)
- injuries on several areas, indicating that the child was hit from many directions or that the child attempted a defense
- child tells of abusive behavior by parents to teacher or classmates

Neglect

- extremely unkept appearance, inappropriate clothing, poor hygiene
- extreme deviations from normal height and/or weight expectations
- constant hunger, begging or stealing food
- falls asleep in class, constant listlessness or fatigue
- untreated wounds or physical maladies
- repeated truancy
- odor of alcohol or marijuana on child's breath
- drug related side effects (lethargy or unusually hyperactive behavior, dilated or constricted pupils)
- reports by the child indicating lack of care and supervision

Sexual Abuse

- pain upon walking or sitting
- stained, bloody, or torn underwear
- pain or itching in genital areas
- symptoms of venereal disease (itching or pain in genital area, extreme sensitivity to light, sores in genital or mouth area) in younger children
- pregnancy in early adolescence
- statements by child indicating advanced sexual knowledge for his/her age, or victimization through sexual assault

Other Signs

- unwillingness to disrobe for gym, showers, or physical examinations
- behavioral or emotional disorders such as thumbsucking, extreme withdrawal or fear, phobias, complusions, lags in emotional or intellectual development, or behavioral extremes
- conversations with parents in which they seem unconcerned about the child or view their child in a negative way

B. Obtain other witnesses.

Preferably, the child should be seen by the school nurse and a record of the observed symptoms or injuries should be entered into his/her files. If a school nurse is unavailable, a guidance counselor, administrator, or fellow teacher should see the suspected signs of mistreatment.

C. Keep a personal record.

A running anecdotal recording of observations should be kept for future reference. Notes should be objective, with personal thoughts identified as such.

D. Report the incident.

If your school does not have a procedure for reporting, the local telephone number for reporting incidents of suspected abuse and neglect can be obtained by dialing "operator" and requesting the child abuse and neglect reporting line. Reports can be made anonymously if desired.

E. Follow up.

In addition to the above suggestions, the teacher may wish to submit a written report to the local social service agency concerned with child abuse and neglect. Depending on the situation, the teacher may also decide to inform the parents of the action taken. The teacher might also wish to discuss the situation with the child in order to facilitate an understanding of what has transpired. If the report of maltreatment was not made anonymously, the teacher should remain in contact with the person assigned to the child's case by the agency in charge of child abuse and neglect. This allows for continuous feedback and coordination of strategies between professionals.

In summary, the teacher plays a major role in the detection of child abuse and neglect, and provides the catalyst which sets into motion a program designed to

curb abusive and neglected behavior. Involvement by school personnel in child abuse and neglect is important for many reasons: the law requires it; professionalism demands it; and lastly, human compassion for one subjected to cruelty and pain, and a deep commitment to the welfare of students, force one to react on their behalf.

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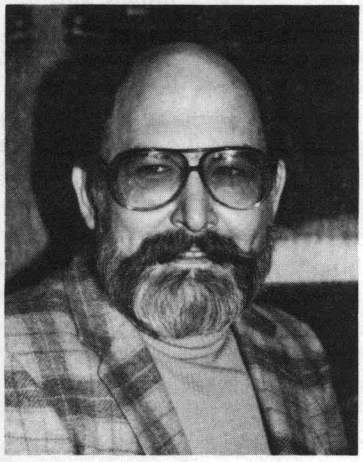
Spare the Rod

John Jacobs



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· Schools are "A verie prison of captivated youth, and proves dissolute, in punishing it before it be so. Come upon them when they are going to their lessons, and you hear nothing but whipping and brawling both of children tormented, and master besotted with anger and chafing . . . Oh wicked and pernicious manner of teaching."

Montaigne

Most teachers, counselors, and adminstrators are aware of the uses and limitations of punishment. It is when we attempt to convey these ideas to laymen that we most often encounter difficulties. The following is an attempt to review the topic of punishment and to provide some examples which educators may wish to use in their discussions.

Punishment, as the word is used today, is the technical term for the presentation of an aversive stimulus following and dependent upon the occurrence of a behavior (Reynolds, 1968, p. 111), behavior being defined as an observable *and* measurable external or internal act of a child. An 'aversive stimulus' is any object or event that a child will actively avoid, or that has the effect of temporarily decreasing the rate or probability of a behavior when it occurs as a consequence of that behavior. It is only when an 'aversive stimulus' follows a behavior that we can say punishment has occurred.

It is obviously not sufficient that a teacher, principal, or parent believe something is punishing; unless it meets the definition of an aversive stimulus, it will not be punishment. For example, for some children, being scolded can actually be rewarding. Often, the only attention some children receive is scolding, and any attention by an adult may be better than none. Other, though admittedly extreme, examples are the self mutilating behaviors exhibited by some 'severely disturbed' children: children who repeatedly rake their faces with their fingernails to a point where the bones of the face are exposed, or children who have methodically chewed off one finger. For these children the pain is not an 'aversive stimulus'.

Other examples include being sent to the principal's office for some infraction of classroom rules. For a child who is unhappy in the classroom, for whom the classroom is aversive, being sent out can be rewarding. Similarly, being ridiculed in class can mean having the undivided attention of teacher and classmates and can be rewarding for some children. For a shy child, being praised, recognized, or held up as an example in front of his peers can, in fact, be punishing.

Sulzer and Mayer (1972) define punishment in the following way: Punishment is a procedure in which the presentation of a stimulus contingent upon a behavior reduces the rate with which the behavior is emitted." They go on to say that "Punishment can be said to have occurred only if the individual's rate of emitting the dependent behavior has been demonstrably reduced." They point out that "an event may be described as punishing by the person who administers it while the recipient does not actually feel punished." For example, adults are likely to identify a behavior such as a spanking as a punishing activity, yet, a child might solicit spankings

because of the concurrent reinforcement (*reward*) he would get in the form of the attention that he gains.

The advocacy of the punishment as a means of controlling behavior is historic, current, and ubiquitous. "Thou shalt not suffer a witch to live", (Exodus 22:18) can be interpreted as prescribing punishment for witchlike behavior. Chopping off the hands of pickpockets, in addition to making future pocket picking behavior more difficult, and serving as a warning to other pickpockets, was obviously intended as a punishment.

Eleanor Roosevelt (Roosevelt, 1962) in discussing blindness, pointed out that "For centuries the blind were ostracized, considered a group apart and unclean. Blindness was regarded as a punishment from God for sins and therefore (the blind were) to be avoided."

"Experts" have *long* advocated the use of punishment in schools. In 1928 for example, H.W. James listed 17 types of school misbehavior along with suitable punishment for each type. These included: "for impertinence: (a) Oral reproof, (b) Put offended in his place by a remark that will enlist pupils on your side, (c) Corporal punishment, (d) Dismissal from class," and, for a child who shows-off: "(a) put offender in his place by a remark that will enlist pupils on your side, (b) Removal of privileges, (c) Public acknowledgement of fault."

Skinner (1965), in questioning punishment maintains that it is "the commonest technique of control in modern life. The pattern is familiar: if a man does not behave as you wish, knock him down; if a child misbehaves, spank him; if the people of a country misbehave, bomb them. Legal and police systems are based upon such punishments as fines, flogging, incarceration, and hard labor. Religious control is exerted through penances, threats of excommunication, and consignment to hell fire."

Although punishment has long been advocated, codified, and practiced, it has until recently been practiced without empirical knowledge of its effects. It is only within the past 30 years that these have been systematically studied.

The primary effect of properly administered punishment is the *temporary* suppression of a behavior. If a child is performing some behavior at a given rate (e.g. he gets out of his seat 15 times per day), and moderate punishment is administered immediately, each time he commits the behavior, the rate of behaving will temporarily diminish. Suppression is greatest when punishment is first introduced; later, *despite* continued punishment, there is some recovery in the rate of behaving. The child getting out of his seat 15 times per day may immediately drop to a rate of 7 or 8 times per day under moderate punishment; then, despite continued punishment, the rate will to some extent recover — to perhaps a rate of 10 or 12 times per day.

The rate of behaving, under punishment, is inversely related to the intensity of the punishment, the continuing rate of behaving being lower the more intense the punishment, with mild punishment often having no effect on the rate of behaving.

When punishment is discontinued, the rate of behaving increases, usually, to a rate which is *higher* than it was before punishment was introduced. Punishment, if severe enough, will reduce the rate of behaving, but to remain effective, punishment must be continued. Reynolds (1968) points out, "If the behavior is no longer punished, there is a greater tendency than ever to engage in the behavior . . ." (p. 111)

Any behavior a child exhibits is maintained through some reinforcement — That is, there is some reason for his behavior.

Punishment of a behavior, or any aversive stimulus, typically generates escape and avoidance behavior — escape from the punishment, but *not* an elimination of the reason for the behavior. During elementary school, I remember being punished for talking in class to a friend. Temporarily, as a result of the punishment, my talking to my friend (which was reinforcing) was not eliminated. In order to avoid punishment for talking in class, we then exhibited "note passing" behavior. Naturally, having an experienced teacher who was knowledgeable of the behavior of boys, this (notepassing) behavior was noted and we were again promptly punished: again, temporary suppression of the behavior. In order to communicate without punishment, we then learned finger spelling, which has since stood me in good stead. However, it was not the teacher's objective that I learn finger spelling. This is one of the pitfalls of punishment; the person administering the punishment has no control over the form of the escape and avoidance behavior. A teacher who punishes a behavior may very well, in effect, be teaching a child to be sneaky, with no control over the form that sneakiness will take.

Another of the difficulties in using punishment is generalization. A child will often come to associate the punishment received with factors other than the behavior which precipitated the punishment. A child punished for getting out of his seat during mathematics class may subsequently attempt to avoid the desk he left, the classroom in which the punishment was administered, the school, the teacher doing the punishing, and/or mathematics.

This danger of inappropriate pairing is especially great when the punishment is removed, in time, from the behavior. Corporal punishment administered in the hall or principal's office, and detention after school, are removed in time from the behavior and are far less likely to reduce the probability of a behavior than punishment applied immediately.

Thoresen and Hosford (1972) maintain that "Usually, aversive techniques are employed as a last resort; when they are used, they are applied only for a limited period of time until the (child) can gain control over his deviant responses by learning more appropriate ways of responding." An everyday example might be a two-year-old, walking into a busy street with total disregard for traffic. Punishment may be administered as he reaches the curb, thereby temporarily suppressing (though not eliminating) his 'street entering' behavior and allowing time to teach him proper 'street crossing' behavior. Here again, however, punishing the behavior does not eliminate the child's goal of crossing the street, and certainly does not teach proper street crossing behavior. It

is only a stop-gap procedure to allow time for appropriate teaching. Allowing him to proceed without punishment, if he looks both ways, is reinforcement.

Although appropriately administered punishment will usually result in a temporary suppression of the punished behavior, this alone does not usually yield a reduction in the total number of occurrences of a behavior, since, once punishment ceases, the rate of the previously punished behavior increases, usually to a level higher than the rate prior to punishment.

Punishing a child for talking to a friend in class may reduce the child's rate of talking from 20 to 15 times per day. However, once the child is no longer punished for talking, his rate may increase to 30 times per day. Over an extended period of time the net result of the period of punishment may be a larger total number of talking behaviors that would have been the case had punishment never been implemented.

It is possible to use this phenomenon when we want to increase the rate of a behavior. For example, it might be possible, under some circumstances, to increase a child's rate of doing arithmetic problems by administering punishment for a period of time, and, after the rate has risen following the cessation of punishment, maintaining the new, higher rate by an appropriate program of reinforcement. Obviously, this is not a method of choice since there is no control of new behaviors generated by punishment.

Skinner (1965) summarizes some of the effects. First, he points out, punishment does temporarily stop a behavior. When you are caning a child for striking someone, he can hardly continue his striking. Similarly, when one loudly scolds a child for talking to a friend in class, he can hardly continue his conversation. A second effect, Skinner points out, is that behavior which has *consistently* been punished becomes the source of conditioned stimuli which often evoke incompatible behavior. A third effect of punishment is the conditioning of any stimulation which accompanies the punished behavior, whether it arises from the behavior itself or from concurrent circumstances. For example, if a child is severely punished every time he writes a nasty word on a piece of white paper, the presence of white paper may subsequently be avoided as much as will the writing of nasty words.

As has repeatedly been demonstrated, a behavior is maintained by its consequences. High rates of behavior occur only when the sequalae of that behavior are reinforcing. Children making "smart remarks" in class continue doing so when the class laughs and/or the child gets attention for his smart remark. Children continue to have tantrums when their tantrums result in their "getting their way".

Behavior *is* extinguished when it is not reinforced. People seldom try a third funny story in a meeting if the first two evoked no laughter. We soon stop talking to someone if we are constantly ignored. Something, a reinforcer, must be present for a behavior to be maintained.

When a child is punished during or immediately following the inappropriate or undesired behavior, he cannot simultaneously be reinforced if the punishment is of sufficient strength.

A child (for whom scolding is aversive) who is scolded while talking to a friend, does not get reinforcement from his friend in the form of a response. In effect, this amounts to extinction (non-reinforcement) of his talking behavior. In other words, talking to his friend is not reinforced, and therefore, the rate of talking decreases. In this instance, the rate of talking diminishes not as a result of the punishment, but as a result of not being reinforced.

Similarly, a dog on a choke chain learns not to stray from his handler, not because of the punishment which accompanies reaching the end of his chain, but because of the cessation of the aversive stimulus when he is less than a chain length away. He learns to stay near his handler as a result of negative reinforcement (the removal of an aversive stimulus when he is less than a chain length away) rather than as a result of punishment (being choked).

Another danger in the use of punishment to control the behavior of children, demonstrated in a variety of studies, is that for a child (or any organism) who is punished, or who receives aversive stimulation, the response is often fighting, hitting or some other form of aggression. This may be a manifestation of modeling.

Much, if not most, social learning that occurs in children is the result of modeling — the imitation of behavior displayed by others. Bandura (1967), among others, reports a number of studies demonstrating that, "Children who observed . . . aggressive models (adults striking and abusing a plastic toy) displayed a great number of precisely imitative physical and verbal responses, whereas such behavior rarely occurred in either the non-aggressive model group or the control group."

"The (aggressive and abusive) behavior of the models not only effectively shaped the form of the children's responses, but it also produced substantial disinhibitory effects. Children who had observed . . . aggressive models exhibited approximately twice as much aggression as did subjects in either the non-aggressive model group or the control group. By contrast, children who witnessed subdued, non-aggressive models displayed the inhibited behavior characteristics of their models and expressed significantly less aggression than the control children."

Much the same kind of data, though obviously non-experimental, is being generated by pediatricians, sociologists, and social psychologists studying child abuse. In discussing corporal punishment, Mauren (1974) points out,

> Ethical judgments are changing rapidly from a willingness to live with primitive punitiveness to a recognition that permitting one child to be battered is to subject all our children to the danger of victimization. When as an adult the erstwhile battered child shoots 18 people from a Texas tower, kills 14 nurses in a Chicago residence, or slays a movie colony party in Hollywood, the blood is on the hands of those who would give aid and comfort to the punishing parent who shaped these lives without learning that corporal punishment is an ethical evil.

> Could we set aside our obsession with control? Could we, as the pediatricians have developed a symptomatology of the battered child, begin to develop a profile of the overpunished child? Work in progress indicates a near-perfect correlation between the amount and severity of physical punishment endured by a child from 2 to 12 and the amount and severity of antisocial aggressiveness that he displays during adolescence.

There is one further area in connection with punishment to consider: that is the area of neurosis.

Peter (1972) alludes to this area when he suggests "punishment conditions the child to feel anxiety, that is, certain biochemical changes producing internal cues will inhibit furtherance of the act. If the child is reaching to turn the knob on the electric range . . . slapping his fingers and saying 'no' will cause him to feel anxiety. Certain internal cues will return the next time he initiates this kind of act. Even the intention to commit that act can make him feel uncomfortable."

For obvious reasons, there have been no empirical studies on humans, but perhaps some extrapolations from some early animal studies are possible.

Liddel (1954, p. 190) talks about experimental neurosis in sheep and goats. He describes this neurosis by describing a group of symptoms including:

> small jerky movements of . . . foreleg, like the uncontrollable twitching of the facial muscles in patients afflicted by tic . . . every evidence of alarm, included repeated movements of the head and ears, bleating, laboured breathing and repeated micturation and defecation . . .
>
> . . . undue sensitivity to any situations which seem to imply danger. Even the most feeble and innocuous change in the environment, if sudden, elicited an exaggerated alarm reaction and preparation for flight, heart rate . . rapid and highly variable, with frequent irregularities (premature beats) . . . occasioned by the visual night noises . . ." The incapability" of dealing with a situation of actual danger in a realistic fashion . . ." with gregariousness so damaged that while others escape together in one direction the neurotic flees in panic by itself.

All of these symptoms were generated simply by repeated mild punishment: An electric shock to the foreleg" — a shock so weak that it would scarcely be felt on the moistened fingertips," an electric shock from which the experimenter could not experience the slightest pain.

Perhaps the most significant finding from this series of studies was "that the experimental neurosis, once established, was truly chronic and strikingly affected not only the . . . behavior in the laboratory but (the) mode of living . . . 24 hours a day for the remainder of his life."

The synonymous applications of punishment and discipline in the schools are well-worn and constant. A long-standing and popular idea with certain schools of thought is that the number and severity of the schools' discipline problems could be reduced by modifying the nature of punishment administered in the hallways and classrooms.

The evidence is convincing that the public and parents view discipline as a major problem in the schools and that young teachers often leave the field during their first year or two because of discipline problems.

Experienced teachers report that discipline problems diminish as their skills grow in diagnosing student needs and developing interpersonal relationships. Arthur Combs talks about the "instantaneous decisions" that teachers have to make. It is probably in the area of discipline — the daily management and control of a classroom — that teachers most need an inner value system which leads to proper "instantaneous decisions" based on wisdom and solid research evidence.

The modification of student behavior through the use and mis-use of punishment is a concept which should be explored by every school practitioner.

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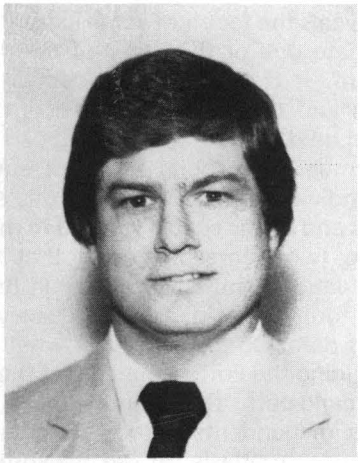
Special Education Personnel Present Papers

Thomas McIntyre, EIU Department of Special Education, has had a paper entitled, "The Relationship Between Locus Control and Teacher Burnout" accepted for presentation to the New England Educational Research Organization in Boston April 29, 1982.

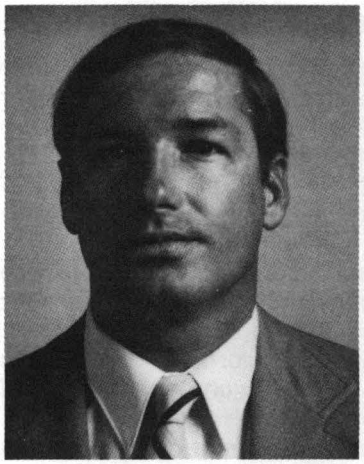
Kathlene Shank, EIU Department of Special Education and Laura Bundy and Karen Highland, graduate assistants in the Department of Special Education, presented a paper entitled "Language Experience and Reading" at the Region III, Title I Conference In Peoria March 3-4.

The Doctoral Degree in Education: The Ed.D. Versus the Ph.D.

Thomas E. Deering and Jerry E. Whitworth



Thomas E. Deering is currently a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Missouri-Columbia in Social Foundations of Education. In addition to his doctoral work, he has completed the following graduate degrees: Master of Education in Social Foundations; Educational Specialist in School Administration, and Master of Arts in History. He is a former junior high, senior high, and university teacher and has written for publication on several aspects of education.



Jerry Whitworth obtained his Ed.D. from the University of Missouri in 1979 in school administration with an emphasis in special education. A former junior high, senior high, and special education teacher, he has also worked as a school administrator and an educational consultant with the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. He recently accepted the position, Superintendent of the Gainesville R-V Schools in Gainesville, Missouri.

Introduction

A considerable debate has ensued in years past concerning the relative role, use and function, of the Doctor of Education degree in relation to that of the Doctor of Philosophy degree. The Ph.D. is much more traditional and established and is in wide use across all areas of academia. The Ed.D., on the other hand, is limited to those studies which are specific to the field of education. This has resulted in much misunderstanding and confusion among the "lay" public, and much disagreement among academicians.

Historically, the Ed.D. was designed to provide practitioners with the opportunity to apply research in their chosen field. It was instituted for the practicing professional (Ludlow, Sanderton, & Pugh, 1964). The Ph.D., unlike the Ed.D., has traditionally been awarded only after the completion of a dissertation that was not only an example of original research, but a contribution to knowledge, as well (Eells, 1963). Its original emphasis was to develop a scholar capable of skilled research and competent teaching (Bent, 1962).

Although the Ph.D. and Ed.D. degrees were originally conceived for different purposes and had diverse objectives in their designs, many of these differences have become obscured over the years within many colleges of education. Many studies have found that these original differences no longer exist (Moore, Russel, & Ferguson, 1960), and some writers claim that in purpose and function the two degrees are very similar (Robertson & Sistler, 1971), (Cardozier, 1968).

In an earlier study these authors found, in a survey of Big 8 Universities, that many of the perceived differences between the Ph.D. and Ed.D. were nonexistent in practice, and individuals with either degree took very similar programs of study and developed similar career outlets. That survey prompted this more extensive study of the actual role and functions of the Ed.D. and the Ph.D.

Twenty-five major universities were selected nationwide to participate in the investigation. At each institution the dean of the college of education and three randomly selected departments/areas within each college of education were chosen to respond to the study's instrument.

The instrument consisted of a questionnaire which asked the participants to respond to a number of questions regarding the actual functioning of the Ph.D. and the Ed.D. at their individual institutions. Some questions dealt with factual information, such as numbers of faculty members holding each degree, while other questions dealt with the particular participants perceptions of the Ph.D. versus the Ed.D.

Analysis of Data

Data collected by this study were compiled and arranged in two tables which can be found on the following pages. An examination of these tables reveals some very interesting information.

Table 1 shows that, of 20 universities, 14 award both the Ed.D. and the Ph.D. Those who award only one of the degrees are evenly split, three on one side and three on the other. Among individual departments we find this situation mixed. Curriculum and Instruction mirrors the responses by the deans. However, 11 Educational Foundations and Philosophy departments award the Ph.D. only, while only one awards the Ed.D. and more reported awarding both degrees.

There were many more faculty members reported with the Ph.D. than with the Ed.D. Overall, for the colleges of education, this was a 20 percent difference. The greatest discrepancy, percentage-wise, on this item was exhibited by departments of Educational Foundations and Philosophy with 41 faculty members reported holding the Ph.D. and only one holding the Ed.D. This is an interesting paradox when it is observed that, of these departments, the vast majority award only the Ed.D.

It should be noted that the figures for the colleges of education are not a sum of the individual departments. This is due to the fact that each college of education was randomly selected and the dean and the three departments were asked to respond individually. The survey responses then were random and the departments represented by Tables 1 and 2 are not necessarily located only in those colleges of education which are represented in the tables. This makes it even more intriguing to observe that, in spite of this fact, the overall responses of the departments and the colleges of education are very similar, proportionally.

Table 2 reveals the fact that some institutions are willing to eliminate one or the other of the degrees from their program. It is a very close contest among the departments and the colleges. However, most would rather drop the Ed.D. than the Ph.D. It can be seen that the total number of responses do not equal the total number of individuals responding to this study. Many chairpersons and deans simply refused to make a choice between the two degrees, stating that each serves distinct populations and is necessary in its own right.

The next four items in Table 2 display some very dichotomous data. On the subject of whether or not an individual holding the Ed.D. could direct the dissertation of a Ph.D. candidate, the overwhelming answer was "Yes". Most respondents noted that their institutions put much more emphasis on the background and interests of the faculty member than on what kind of degree he or she holds.

This same attitude was reflected on the next item regarding preference for a new faculty member. Most participants indicated that they had no preference one way or the other, being interested, instead, in the ability and background of applicants, and their institution's particular needs.

Only on the next question, concerning significant differences in coursework between the two degrees, was

TABLE 1:
Institutions Awarding the Ph.D. and the Ed.D.

Department/ Area	Awards Only Ph.D.	Awards Only Ed.D.	Awards Both	Number of Staff with Ph.D.	Number of Staff with Ed.D.
Special Education (2)	1		1	16	13
Educational Foundations & Philosophy (3)	1	11		41	1
Higher & Adult Education (3)	1	1	1	14	19
Curriculum & Instruction (11)	1	2	8	284	159
Health & Physical Education (2)		2		13	9
Educational Administration, Supervision & Leadership (9)	1	4	3	81	48
Industrial-Vocational Education (2)	1		1	8	8
Counseling & Educational Psychology (9)	2	3	3	68	69
Colleges of Education (20)	3	3	14	1302	991

TABLE 2:
Institutions' Perceptions of the Ph.D. and the Ed.D.

Dept./Area	Willing to Drop Ed.D.	Willing to Drop Ph.D.	Ability of Ed.D. to Direct Ph.D. Dissertation	Preference for New Faculty Member	Significant Differences in Coursework	Differences in Career Outlets
Special Education (2)	2		No — 0 Yes — 2	Ph.D. — 0 Ed.D. — 0 No Pref. — 2	No — 2 Yes — 0	No — 2 Yes — 0
Educational Foundations & Philosophy (3)	2		No — 0 Yes — 3	Ph.D. — 0 Ed.D. — 0 No Pref. — 3	No — 2 Yes — 1	No — 2 Yes — 1
Higher & Adult Education (3)	1	2	No — 0 Yes — 3	Ph.D. — 1 Ed.D. — 0 No Pref. — 2	No — 1 Yes — 2	No — 2 Yes — 1
Curriculum & Instruction (11)	5	3	No — 1 Yes — 10	Ph.D. — 2 Ed.D. — 0 No Pref. — 0	No — 8 Yes — 3	No — 8 Yes — 3
Health & Physical Education (2)	1	1	No — 0 Yes — 2	Ph.D. — 0 Ed.D. — 0 No Pref. — 2	No — 2 Yes — 0	No — 1 Yes — 1
Education Administration, Supervision & Leadership (9)	2	3	No — 0 Yes — 9	Ph.D. — 0 Ed.D. — 1 No Pref. — 8	No — 8 Yes — 2	No — 7 Yes — 2
Industrial-Vocational	1	1	No — 0 Yes — 2	Ph.D. — 0 Ed.D. — 0 No Pref. — 2	No — 2 Yes — 0	No — 1 Yes — 2
Counseling & Educational Psychology (9)	3	3	No — 0 Yes — 8	Ph.D. — 1 Ed.D. — 0 No Pref. — 7	No — 6 Yes — 2	No — 4 Yes — 4
Colleges of Education (20)	7	6	No — 0 Yes — 20	Ph.D. — 2 Ed.D. — 0 No Pref. — 18	No — 10 Yes — 10	No — 12 Yes — 8

there substantial dissonance between the departments and the college deans. The deans were evenly split on this issue, ten saying there are significant differences and ten saying there are no significant differences. The individual departments/areas, though, responded as seeing no important differences by a better than 3 to 1 margin.

The discrepancies were much less pronounced on the final item regarding differences in career outlets. Fifty percent more of the deans perceived no differences between jobs obtained by Ed.D. graduates and those obtained by Ph.D.'s. The departments, by a 2 to 1 majority, could perceive no differences in career outlets between the two groups.

Individual responses to the last two items in Table 2 were very similar to the responses received in the authors' previous study. Most deans and department chairpersons saw coursework differences between the two degrees as being limited to foreign language requirements and statistics. In this sense the Ph.D. was viewed as more research oriented. This perception was reflected, also, in the perceived differences in career outlets. Those individuals who saw a difference reported the Ph.D. graduate gravitating to more research, university teaching positions, while the individual with an Ed.D. was viewed as going to practitioner-type positions such as administrators or technicians.

In addition to stating specific differences, some individual respondents expanded on their perceptions concerning differences between the two degrees. Overall, the Ph.D. program was perceived as being more inflexible, more research-oriented, and more dependent on a residency requirement.

Summary and Conclusions

Data from this study reveal ambivalent perceptions regarding the Ed.D. and the Ph.D. among university personnel. On the one hand, many individuals expressed a strong desire to see both degrees continue. This is evidenced by the fact that many participants refused to make a choice when asked which degree they would eliminate. Comments by many respondents also indicated a strong belief that each degree serves a distinct population and is necessary in its own right.

These perceived differences, however, do not bear up when viewed in relation to the remaining data gathered by this study. For instance, the large majority

of participants had no degree preference for a new faculty member, and saw no reason why a faculty member with an Ed.D. could not direct the dissertation of a Ph.D. candidate. In addition, most perceived no significant differences in coursework between the two degree programs, although the college deans were evenly split on the point. Neither did the majority of the participants see a difference in career outlets between holders of the two degrees.

Many of the findings from the authors earlier, preliminary survey was substantiated by this study. The most important difference emerging between the two degrees is that the Ph.D. is often seen as more prestigious and credible than the Ed.D. Part of this is due to the fact that the Ph.D., as a research degree, is perceived as more reputable, and thus as "superior". Another factor, especially among the "lay" public, may be the fact that the Ed.D. is found only in education. The Ph.D., as a result, is much better known and accepted. Because the Ed.D. is not well known, this lack of recognition may be equated with inferiority.

In actual practice, though, this inferiority does not appear to exist. Both degrees appear to be quite similar in scope and focus as implemented by most institutions involved in this study. Universities should probably give serious consideration to discontinuing one or the other of these two degrees. Instead of having two separate doctorates, greater emphasis should be given to designing and developing the remaining doctoral program to the unique background and career needs of the individual candidate.

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New Communications Kit Tells the Public School Story

A new communications tool has been developed to help local school leaders and educators bring the public school story to students and the entire community. Titled "Tomorrow's Public Schools — Determining Direction" the kit features a filmstrip which traces the development of American public education from its earliest days and which can be used either as part of a community forum or as a teaching tool.

The 33-minute filmstrip has synchronized sound and two major segments. The first part stars students, teachers, school officials, board members and parents of today and yesterday. It tells the public school story by providing an historical perspective which demonstrates the responsiveness of public education to social change and need in our rapidly growing nation.

A special, final segment of the filmstrip can be used at the same session or separately. It is designed to stimulate discussion of challenges facing the public schools — in a social studies classroom, at a teacher training seminar or at a meeting of a local community organization.

In addition to an instructional guide, the new kit contains a moderator's manual and complete instructions on how the materials can be used to provide a forum program on public education at meetings of local community organizations. The model forum program features four major components: an introduction, the filmstrip, a guided discussion period, and an in-depth questionnaire designed to provide local school leaders with valuable feedback on the perceptions, needs, and priorities of the audience.

The basic goal of the forum program is to build effective two-way communications within the local community, thus encouraging improved public information, involvement, and support of the public schools.

Developed by the New Jersey School Boards Association (NJSBA), the kit was designed for use within any local school district in the nation. It can be purchased by New Jersey school districts for the cost of duplication, mailing, and handling — $35.00. Out of state districts will be charged $65.00 to help offset the development costs already paid for by New Jersey school districts.

"Tomorrow's Public Schools — Determining Direction" can be ordered by writing the NJSBA Business Office, P.O. Box 909, Trenton, NJ 08605 or by telephoning (609) 695-7600, Extension 274.

Moler, Rawlins Attend American Personnel and Guidance Convention

Dr. Donald Moler and Dr. Melanie Rawlins, Educational Psychology and Guidance Department at EIU, attended the American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention in Detroit March 17-20. Dr. Rawlins was a panel presenter at a training session dealing with Mentoring and Networking. Dr. Rawlins is also a member of the Committee on Mentoring and Networking for the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision which met during the convention.

Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences: Challenge and Change at Eastern Illinois University

Ronald M. Leathers

Ronald M. Leathers is Assistant to the Dean, School of Education, Eastern Illinois University. He has 19 years of experience as a clinical experience supervisor and director. He is an experienced educational research assistant and journal editor.

The pre-student teaching clinical experience that allows students to participate in actual school classroom settings is a most vital element in teacher education programs. Though many forms of clinical experience have been developed and utilized successfully in the classrooms and laboratories of the university campus (micro-teaching, simulation, role playing, peer-group teaching, and video tape seminars), teacher educators agree that the real school provides the ideal opportunities for candidates to gain appropriate integration of methods and theory, and to experience the rewards and frustrations of working with pupils in the schools.

During the first half of this century, the teacher training programs that grew out of the normal school-teacher's college-state university cycle recognized and expounded the need for clinical experiences and, during this time, the laboratory schools created on the campuses carried the lion's share of the burden in providing clinical settings for teacher training. While it is true that the chief emphasis of this period was on the development and organization of the student teaching term, and while it is also true that the public schools did participate, voluntarily and productively, in this period of clinical experiences development, the fact remains that the bulk of pre-student teaching observation and participation experiences in conjunction with professional courses at the freshman and sophomore level was provided by the campus laboratory schools.

Thus, the current problem for Schools of Education seeking quality training for their teaching candidates should be crystal clear, for everyone knows about the demise of the laboratory school, an innocent victim of nearly two decades of political, social, and economic upheaval which left an indelible mark upon the system of American education. The post-Sputnik panic, the 1960's re-emphasis on the structure of the disciplines, mass movement toward re-ordering and restructuring the curricula, and the resultant emphasis on the teacher's knowledge and mastery of his subject matter, shifted and increased the thrust of state and federal funding to the development of the academic subject areas which teachers select as majors. Throughout this period of development, the professional education courses, the foundations, the methods, and the clinical experience programs, assumed a contributory and complementary role rather than a position of forceful leadership.

The advent of the seventies brought the realization that billions of dollars spent in the previous decade had yielded little proof of parallel success and improved quality in the ultimate product of the schools, and ushered in a strong public appeal for accountability in education; as usual, the public schools and university schools of professional education were awarded the chief responsibility for what may, or may not, have happened in the schools during the sixties and were forced to assume the lonely role of the "accountables."

The inevitable result of inflation and growing demands on tax dollars during the seventies was a direction to efficiency, practicality, and economy in public spending. The inability of the schools to offer concrete evidence that their "reign" in the sixties had made a significant difference, the declining school enrollments, the burgeoning demands for vocational-technical education, and the glutted teacher market became convincing arguments for those who opposed the spending of large amounts of money on university laboratory schools.

Therefore, a major paradox in teacher education for the seventies — at the same time that educational spending was curtailed, and many laboratory schools were closed, the intense investigation of practices in teacher education had resulted in a renewed cry for

relevance — the successful integration of theory and practice at all levels of the candidate's training, school-university partnerships, performance-based teacher education, and internships. State certification boards and other education agencies actively engaged in revamping certification standards to include additional required amounts of clinical experience.

Writing about educational reform and revitalization in the state of Ohio during the 1971-73 period, Luvern L. Cunningham (1973), of Ohio State University, reported that, "Considerable emphasis is being placed currently on clinical experiences." At the same time, the Pennsylvania Citizen's Commission on Basic Education reported that in their investigations they "heard repeatedly at meetings and in testimony at public hearings that most prospective teachers do not receive sufficient experience in the classrooms prior to accepted fulltime positions." (The Report of the Citizen's Commission on Basic Education, November 1973) The Commission emphasized the importance of getting teacher candidates into field experiences prior to the typical senior student teaching experience.

In Illinois, the investigations were launched with a state-wide study of education needs under the leadership of then superintendent of the Office of Public Instruction, Michael J. Bakalis. At regional hearings, testimony was heard from over 2,000 citizens. In summarizing the general findings at these public hearings, Elmer J. Clark (1972) reported, "There was a consistent demand for more extensive and direct classroom experiences for professional candidates." The *Report of the Task Force on Certification* released by the Illinois Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction stated, among many items, that the university teacher training program should "include sequential clinical experiences beginning early in the preparatory period." In addition, the Report emphasized that preparing institutions should be assisted by local school districts in providing professional education which includes clinical experience. They should "provide facilities for training, local staff for supervision of clinical experience, assistance to the university staff in evaluating prospective teachers, and input to program planning" (Michael J. Bakalis, May 5, 1972). Presumably from this Task Force Report, the heavy emphasis on pre-student teaching clinical experience (PSTCE) caught hold, and it has dominated every major recommendation to originate from the State Teacher Certification Board since the work was published.

In *Action Goals for the Seventies: An Agenda for Illinois Education* (November 1973), published by the State Board, Action Objective #2 was stated as follows:

> "By 1975, all teacher education programs, in cooperation with individual school districts, should include direct classroom observations and/or participation in community service programs in the freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years."

The new *Manual of Procedures for Approving Illinois Teacher Education Institutions and Programs* (March 21, 1975), published by the State Board of Education (SBOE), Illinois Office of Education, clearly established the regulations and guidelines for approval of all Illinois teacher certification programs and it has become the handbook for SBOE visitation teams conducting the tenth year periodic review of certificate granting institutions in Illinois. In Section II, "Standards and Criteria for Institutional Recognition and Program Approval", Standard 11 c. says that the accredited institution must provide programs offering balanced and interrelated learning experiences in professional studies and experiences, including clinical experiences in school or community settings throughout the preparation period. Later in the manual, the section headed, "Criteria for Approval of Programs", points out, clearly and emphatically, that approved teacher education programs in Illinois must provide for acquisition of skills necessary for effective performance in specific teaching, supervising, and school service roles; that they must provide evidence of cooperative participation between the university and school district staffs; that the program must be designed to "develop the skills and capacities identified as a result of attention to public school needs"; and that each program must be supported by "adequate and sufficient clinical settings."

It seems that the most recent and urgent evidence for the necessity of Illinois teacher education institutions to review their clinical experiences programs is the fact that a special Task Force, composed of Illinois educators, was appointed in May of 1976 by the SBOE, with the purpose of developing a set of guidelines for clinical experiences to be used, presumably by the SBOE and the State Certification Board in determining the approval status of Illinois institutions' entitlement programs.

In a memorandum to members of the State Certification Board, dated May 21, 1975, and entitled, "Proposed Guidelines for Revising Clinical Experiences and Student Teaching Requirements," Susan K. Bentz, Secretary of the Board and Assistant Superintendent, SBOE, expressed the concern of SBOE that, since 1965, the standards for program approval had included no requirement for pre-student teaching clinical experiences. Bentz reported that in recent years the "staff has confronted a number of difficulties in reviewing institutions and programs in the absence of clearly articulated policies with regard to clinical experiences and student teaching"; she expressed concern that "over the years it has been customary to require student teaching and clinical experiences only at one level when the person is seeking the special certificate." She stated, "It is the staff's belief that to establish a rigorous system for reviewing clinical experiences, including student teaching, a recodification and a spelling out of existing, and desirable new guidelines should be undertaken" (Bentz Memorandum, May 21, 1975). Part II of the Bentz memorandum is entitled, "Proposed Plan for Reviewing Present Student Teaching and Clinical Experience Policies," and in that section she outlined a rigorous program for defining forms of clinical experience, governing policies, and minimal requirements as approval guidelines for the State Teacher Certification Board.

Following a two-year period of public hearings, Task Force Report revisions, and State Board debate, the Illinois State Teacher Certification Board, in March of 1978, adopted the final, revised document entitled, "Rules and Regulations Governing Clinical Experiences in Teacher Education and Certification." The Document is thorough and logical in its rationale, definitions, recommendations, and requirements regarding pre-student teaching clinical experiences. When sorted through and sifted out, however, the basic thrust of the document, with ominous implication for Illinois teacher training institutions, is the requirement that before a University may certify a candidate, it must provide legally sound documentation that the student has completed a minimum of 100 clock hours of pre-student teaching clinical experience in real schools working with children of age range appropriate to the certificate being sought; the experiences must be closely, competently supervised and logically sequenced throughout the students' four-year program of preparation.

One should not assume that Eastern Illinois University needed this kind of pressure from the State Board to make it aware of the need for pre-student teaching clinical experiences. In fact, many excellent experiences existed among the University programs as requirements, alternatives, and supplements in the teacher candidate's preparation programs. It is true, however, that there was wide diversity in the nature and degree of these experiences which reflected the logistical problems encountered by Eastern because of geographical location, student enrollment, budget, and philosophy. Certainly, Eastern's programs were not in complete compliance with the new mandated guidelines regarding pre-student teaching clinical experience.

In 1977, the Illinois Teacher Certification Board placed Eastern Illinois University's teacher certification programs on provisional approval as a result of non-compliance with regulations specified in *A Manual of Procedures for Approving Illinois Teacher Education Institutions and Programs.*

Later that year, the School of Education at Eastern established departmental study committees to thoroughly evaluate and effectively remedy the specific teacher certification programs which were held in non-compliance. The study committees were composed of the chairman of each department offering a certification program and one, two, or three staff members who had specific administrative and teaching responsibilities in the respective programs.

Central direction, planning, and coordination for the work of the departmental committees was provided by the Office of Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences, an office which was established in 1975 as the University foresaw a directional change in teacher preparation involving more pre-service, practical experience. Since the work of this campus-wide committee required major institutional changes (upgrading and standardization of teacher preparation requirements; curriculum and course revisions and additions; creation of new resources; and reallocation of administrative, staff, and budget support), it was systematically supported, complemented, and endorsed by appropriate University administrative offices and governing bodies, including the Vice President for Academic Affairs; the deans of the various schools and support programs, particularly the Dean, School of Education; curriculum committees at the department and school levels; and the all-University Council on Teacher Education and Council for Academic Affairs.

Since the most frequently cited deficiency in Eastern's programs was Criterion 7, requiring systematic procedures for evaluating the candidate's ability to teach, a major part of the University effort was devoted to the development of the pre-student teaching clinical experience program and to the refinement and improvement of education programs in order to more specifically align them with the new SBOE guidelines.

Specifically, the University established and fulfilled the following commitments:

1. Developed and expanded the role of the Office of Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences and the position of Director. During Summer Term, 1979, an additional professional staff member was assigned one/third time to the Office to assist with the preparation of new materials for the secondary education clinical experiences program. The University is committed to the assignment of additional professional staff time to the Office as work load needs dictate.
2. Accomplished full awareness in the University community of the problems and needs associated with the drive to gain full approval for its teacher preparation programs. This awareness was demonstrated by the campus-wide cooperation and support which aided the institution's requests for new money and the reallocation of existing resources.
3. Reaffirmed and strengthened the working relationships between Eastern and the two local school districts which provide sites, supervision, and related services for required clinical experiences in all of Eastern's programs. Through an accelerated schedule of EIU-public school staff conferences and seminars, and through the work of an Ad Hoc committee, guidelines for the cooperative relationships were revised and/or added. We obtained a commitment from the school districts' administrations that they will continue with our long-standing agreement whereby they provide clinical sites and services for our programs. We maintain in these districts, as we have always done, adequate supervisors and sites for our clinical experiences on a carefully coordinated, year-to-year, voluntary basis.
4. Submitted a NEPR (New and Expanded Program Request) in the Summer of 1978 to our Board of Governors requesting $34,000 in new money to be used, primarily, for school district and teacher stipends, and transportation of students. This NEPR left the campus intact and was, ultimately, cut by the Governor in his final allocations for the

1980 budget in higher education.

5. Submitted a second NEPR in the Fall of 1979, for $28,500 to be used for school district and teacher stipends, and for supervisory transportation costs. This request went forward to the Board of Governors and Board of Higher Education with a top priority designation by the University. It passed through all bodies with veto power, and was given final passage by the Illinois General Assembly during the Summer of 1980.
6. Developed and implemented a pre-student teaching clinical experiences program for secondary education majors which cuts across departmental lines and serves all students enrolled in secondary programs by providing expanded clinical experiences within the boundaries of existing majors and degrees. The program fulfills all requirements of the new guidelines for clinical experience, which stipulate that approved programs must provide 100 clock hours of pre-student teaching clinical experience, adequately supervised, fully documented, and logically sequenced throughout the student's period of preparation.
7. Implemented the "Home High School Visitation Experience" as a basic resource for the clinical experiences at the secondary level. This concept has been in use for more than two years on campus, and it has proved to be quite successful. Carefully directed and monitored by the Office of Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences, the concept satisfies the guidelines for clinical experience and it opens a new supply of available clinical sites for Eastern's programs.
8. Upgraded and tightened the standards for Admission to Teacher Education. We raised the overall qualifying GPA, raised the qualifying scores for language proficiency, required freshman application for early identification, lengthened the probationary period for candidates, established uniform procedures in all departments for monitoring clinical experiences and recommending students for Admission to Teacher Education, and established a "Freshman Experience" for all secondary majors which requires the completion of twenty clock hours of clinical experience prerequisite to admission.

At its regular meeting in Springfield on September 26, 1980, the State Teacher Certification Board approved, unconditionally, all of Eastern's entitlement certification programs, including: elementary education, special education, administration, guidance-counseling, and all secondary education programs.

The pre-student teaching clinical experiences program for all teacher certification students at Eastern Illinois University, under the direction of the Office of Clinical Experiences, is in full compliance with the SBOE document, IMPLEMENTING CLINICAL EXPERIENCES IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS: A HANDBOOK FOR ILLINOIS INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION. Eastern has a fully implemented program requiring more than 100 hours of pre-student teaching clinical experience, documented and evaluated, in all of its teacher certification programs.

The Clinical Experiences Program in Secondary Education

The program cuts across departmental lines and serves all students enrolled in secondary education programs by providing expanded professional experiences within the boundaries of existing majors and degrees. It requires a series of pre-student teaching observation and induction activities of a general school-student nature as a part of the requirements in the professional core. The experiences are integrated into the professional education and disciplinary components of the student's curriculum in a programmatic way with one additional credit hour generated and one credit hour reallocated to these experiences from other components of the professional program.

The required experiences, in a planned sequential design, are part of existing courses in the professional component of all teacher certification programs. The laboratory phase of professional courses and substitutions of specified on-site experience hours for in-class contact hours has absorbed the impact of the experience.

The clinical experiences are part of the requirements for Admission to Teacher Education and courses in the professional core. The requirements for Admission to Teacher Education and the course descriptions specify the hours of clinical experience required in each phase. The documentation for the student's having completed 100 hours of pre-student teaching clinical experience, therefore, is the student's official transcript record of having completed the steps and courses which carry these requirements as reflected in the *General Catalog*.

The secondary program requires a twenty-clock-hour "freshman experience" in schools, sixty clock hours sequenced logically throughout the three basic courses in the professional core (Educational Psychology 3325, The Instructional Task in the Secondary Schools SED 3330, Departmental Methods 3400) and twenty-five clock hours of experience in STG 4000, Orientation to Student Teaching, during the senior year, prior to the Teaching Practicum.

Regular ongoing documentation of the 100 hours required for each student is precise and permanent. A Master File is established for each teacher certification student at the point of application for Admission to Teacher Education in the Office of Clinical Experiences. All on-site clinical experiences are approved, verified, and recorded in the student's Master File by the Director of Clinical Experiences. Every clinical experience, whether on-campus or off-campus, has an evaluation and/or assessment procedure. The Admission to Teacher Education Learning Activity Package is approved and evaluated by the Director and stored in the student's Master File. All logs, records, check sheets, and reports of clinical experience activities required in the professional courses are submitted by the student

directly to his instructor for evaluation. The instructor then forwards all such materials to the Office of Clinical Experiences for inclusion in the student's Master File. The Master File is a current, complete record of all clinical experiences completed by the student at any given time in his program; it is available for reference by the student and by all faculty who are involved in evaluation and retention of the student in teacher education. The Master File will be used by the Department of Student Teaching in conference with the student at the point of his application for the Teaching Practicum in order to assess his readiness and/or "fitness" to student teach. The Master File provides the University with specific, reliable information, facilitating a relevant and systematic evaluation of the candidates' ability to teach.

Resources

1. The Office of Clinical Experiences is the official University agency responsible for directing, coordinating, and monitoring the campus-wide pre-student teaching clinical experiences program insuring that Eastern's programs maintain their quality and preserve the integrity of State Board of Education regulations. This office is staffed by a full-time Director, reporting directly to the Dean, School of Education; a full-time secretary; and student help, as needed. The staff is housed in a two-room suite centrally located in the Buzzard Education Building with more than adequate reception, conference, and storage space, and modern secretarial support equipment. Currently the Office has an annual budget of $25,000 (excluding personnel services) to develop policy and to provide planning, clerical support, student transportation, and supervisory travel support for the University's pre-student teaching clinical experiences program.
2. In Fiscal Year 1980, the total budget for clinical experiences, including student teaching, was $422,000. This total includes all direct and indirect staff time, stipends to public schools cooperating teachers, and transportation for supervision. It does not include the high institutional costs for the support of a flourishing tuition waiver system which Eastern provides for all cooperating public school teachers and administrators. Of the Fiscal Year 1980 total budget, $36,000 was allotted for the direct support of pre-student teaching clinical experiences and additional money funnelled into indirect support of these experiences through reallocation, emergency requests, and pooled resources and manpower involving the two functions, pre-student teaching and student teaching. The Fiscal Year 1981 NEPR (New and Expanded Program Request) which was approved for Eastern, added $28,500 in new money to the total clinical experiences budget. This money is designated, specifically, for support of pre-student teaching clinical experiences, bringing the total for that function to approximately $64,500. The new money is being used to expand agreements with public schools by establishing contractual services stipends for cooperating schools and teachers who provide pre-student teaching clinical sites and services for Eastern. The total budget has remained stable during the past five years, providing appropriate increases for inflationary costs, and will continue to do so; it is adequate for support of Eastern's clinical experiences program.
3. Since the entire pre-student teaching clinical experiences program is directed and coordinated by the Office of Clinical Experiences, the ultimate effect is one of shared supervision and evaluation between the School of Education and the various academic major departments. Specifically, the School of Education is responsible for direct evaluation and supervision of 70% of the clinical experience program and each academic major department is responsible for 30% of the evaluation and supervision. The 100 hours have been written in as partial requirements in various courses in the student's preparation program; some of these courses are taught by the academic major department and some of them are taught by the School of Education. When a student is earning clinical experiences as a part of a given course, that experience is directly supervised and evaluated by the instructor and department offering that particular course.
4. The most reliable measures of undergraduate education majors on Eastern's campus are the Admission to Teacher Education figures. Admission to Teacher Education is the screening process in which students apply for and make their first formal commitment to graduating in a degree program with teacher certification. During the 1973-74 school year, 726 students were admitted to teacher education. The number of students admitted peaked during the 1975-76 school year at 881, followed by a drop in 1976-77 to 679. During the 1977-78 school year, the number of students admitted climbed back to 831, in 1978-79, the number was 648, and in 1979-80, the total number of students admitted was 709. It appears as though the number of new students admitted to teacher education each year is going to stabilize at around 700 students. The trend in faculty workload associated with undergraduate education programs during the past five years has remained stable.
5. For pre-student teaching clinical experiences, Eastern maintains cooperative, voluntary agreements, subject to renewal each year, with the Charleston and Mattoon public school districts, including Head Start and Title One programs; "fringe area" school districts within a thirty-mile radius of the campus (Paris, Casey, Cumberland, Marshall, Neoga), and ten special education centers in the Charleston, Mattoon,

and Champaign-Urbana areas. These provide sufficient clinical sites to support our programs. The only form of remuneration provided by the University for pre-student teaching services is the tuition waiver system. Currently, we are attempting to strengthen and expand these agreements into contracts by establishing financial stipends in return for the public school services.

6. Perhaps the most unique feature of Eastern's pre-student teaching program for secondary education majors is the development of the "home high school visitation" concept. As a clinical experience option in the core courses, secondary education majors are encouraged to complete their experience during visits to their home high schools on free days which can be arranged in their regular campus schedules. Very specific procedures have been devised for monitoring the arrangement, approval, conduct, evaluation, and documentation of these clinical experiences in the Office of Clinical Experiences to insure that they satisfy the intent of SBOE guidelines concerning such experience. This concept is efficient and creative. The many practical problems associated with the development of clinical sites are lessened due to the student's familiarity and personal contacts in his home high school; one can envision the opening door of every secondary school in the state as a possible clinical site. Approximately 600 home high school visititations per year are monitored and recorded by the Office of Clinical Experiences. Thus far, we consider the program very successful.

The Clinical Experiences Program in Elementary Education

The teacher certification program in elementary education is designed to provide both general and professional preparation for those students desiring to teach at one or more levels from nursery school through the ninth grade. Elementary education majors have the option of selecting a program of preparation in the areas of Early Childhood Education (nursery school through grade three), Intermediate (grades four through six), and Comprehensive (grades one through nine). Students who have completed 24 semester hours of work and who have a grade point average of 3.5 also have the option of choosing to enroll in the "Flexible Program for Elementary Majors," a program which permits the student and his advisor to plan an individual program.

Objectives for each program include development of competencies, within a flexible framework, in child study, learning theory, instructional media, classroom strategies, curriculum development and improvement, and learning environment. The mission is to prepare prospective teachers through formal and informal classroom study at the university level and involvement with children and public school personnel through clinical experiences in public school classrooms.

Evaluation of the program is made by continuing study of the quality of student work both in the university classroom and in public school participation. Both university teachers and public school cooperating teachers evaluate students through the use of the university grading system and through specific evaluation procedures designed for each clinical experience.

The clinical experiences program is designed so that elementary education majors have the opportunity to observe children and classroom teachers and to participate in teaching when they are freshmen, and to continue this practice in a general-to-specific sequence during their sophomore and junior years. Specific options and certain courses in general education add numerous complementary experiences to this sequence. The whole culminates sometime during the students' senior year with student teaching.

All students must apply for Admission to Teacher Education during the freshman or sophomore year, or as soon as they declare an intent to pursue a degree with teacher certification. At the same time, and in addition, the elementary education major must make a more specific application for admission in the office of the Department of Elementary Education. The Office of Clinical Experiences screens all candidates for teacher education, admitting, deferring, or denying them according to rules established by the University Council on Teacher Education. As a part of this general, University screening process, the Office of Clinical Experiences must secure a positive recommendation from the candidate's major department. The Department of Elementary Education recommends its majors for admission according to a carefully prescribed set of standards and procedures.

While the elementary education major is an active candidate for admission, in the process of being screened, he may proceed to take the core courses in his professional program, the stipulation being that he must be formally admitted to teacher education by the Office of Clinical Experiences before he will be permitted to do his student teaching.

A Master File is established for each student in the Office of Clinical Experiences at the point of application for Admission to Teacher Education. As the student completes each of the core courses, and each stage of his clinical experience, the appropriate documentation and evaluation forms are forwarded by the instructors of the courses to the Office, and they become a permanent record in his Master File, available at any time to the student and to the staff for assessment and review purposes. All correspondence and special memoranda concerning the student's progress and current status in teacher education become a part of this Master File. At any time during the student's progress through the core courses, instructors may file a "Report of Concern: Continuous Screening for Admission to Teacher Education" with the Department of Elementary Education for appropriate consideration. These reports will also become a part of the student's Master File.

During his freshman, sophomore, and junior year, the elementary education major will progress through the

core of professional courses. These courses are general and specific methods courses, all of which have clinical experience components built in as minimal requirements. The necessary elements of theory, method, and practice are developed in the core courses in a logical, general-to-specific sequence.

Each of the three options in the elementary education program requires in excess of 100 clock hours of pre-student teaching clinical experience: the Early Childhood option requires a range of 131-134 hours, the Intermediate option requires a range of 113-119, and the Comprehensive option requires 113-119.

The Clinical Experiences Program in Special Education

Eastern Illinois University requires extensive practicum and laboratory experience for students pursuing certification as special education teachers. A minimum of 224 hours for special education majors in the elementary option and a minimum of 180 hours for special education majors in the secondary option are an integral part of the special education teacher preparation program. Students must successfully complete the practical aspects of their course work or they cannot pass such courses and cannot be admitted to the Department of Special Education. Because of the unique nature of the K-12 license and because Eastern provides options at both the elementary and secondary education levels, pre-clinical experiences are extensive and ongoing.

Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experience Descriptions

The full range of K-12 experience is insured by requiring instructors and students to divide the required 64 hours, associated with introductory methods and diagnostic courses, equally between elementary and secondary level learning situations. Thus, all graduates have *at least 32 hours* of clinical experience at each level.

Introductory and Characteristics Couses (34 hours associated with these courses). Directed observation using mediated presentations such as the "me too" series, and Moore and Moore's "Mental Retardation", field trips, and independent participation in extracurricular activities with individuals with handicaps.

Diagnostics Courses (30 hours associated with each course). Directed observation using independent interactions between students and individuals with handicaps in testing situations and supervised participation where students are required to administer and interpret results of diagnostic tools.

Methods Courses (26 hours associated with each course). Supervised participation in a structured program, for individuals with handicaps, under the direction of a cooperating teacher and university supervisor.

Evaluation and Verification of Pre-Student Teaching Clinical Experiences

Attendance, cooperation, and professional skills and abilities are considered in evaluating the success of a practicum. There is a great deal of dialogue between the instructor, PSTCE site supervisor, and the student. A check sheet is used as a general guide for evaluation.

Specific tests over mediated experiences have also been developed. Students who do not complete a successful practical experience cannot be admitted to teacher education. Actual clock hours spent are filed centrally when the instructor files the check sheet in the student's folder.

The Chairman of the Department of Special Education reviews all clinical experience activities and incorporates the quality of these experiences as a measure of faculty performance. Coordination and record keeping functions are provided by the Office of Clinical Experiences.

Special Education courses require 20 to 30 hours per student of supervised practicum. Faculty are expected to contact public schools and other agencies at established sites and cooperatively determine children to be served; determine objectives to be met; consult on programmtic decisions; instruct university students in methods, materials, and resources; provide ongoing supervision of clinical experiences; consult with agency staff as needed; continuously evaluate university student progress; conduct joint evaluation of student progress with the clinical site supervisor and maintain records of successful experiences which are filed with the Office of Clinical Experiences; consult on preparation of final reports and consult on future services to be provided to students served.

The Problem

The implementation of the 100 hour PSTCE requirement at Eastern Illinois University was legislated by the State of Illinois. The University's approach to the program was both reactive and proactive — reactive in the interests of survival and proactive in the ingenuity and efficiency with which it obtained additional resources and developed programs adaptive and complementary to the logistical problems common to a relatively isolated, rural university. Compliance was an expensive task for Eastern, requiring acquisition and reallocation of personal, physical, and financial resources.

We are satisfied with the empirical result of the process; we have a sound PSTCE program, but some of us are still unsure as to whether the program is going to improve the quality of the teachers whom we produce. The regulation calls attention to the absence of research evidence in the field of clinical experiences to substantiate the benefits of specific requirements. While few practitioners seem to challenge, or doubt, the desirability of PSTCE, the assumption that it will effect better teachers is tenuous, in our opinion, and based on inadequate research. The act of specifying hours in quantitative terms leaves the requirement open to question.

What is magic about 100 hours? How do we know it is better than 50? Or 200? In spite of everything thus far accomplished, the nagging question remains with us: Will the PSTCE program make a real difference in our students' ability to teach?

In addition to our constant efforts to refine and perfect the PSTCE, we are committed to long-range, continuous evaluation of the program with the goal of gathering useful data regarding its ultimate value.

The first phase of a long-range evaluation program for PSTCE was completed during the 1981-82 school year. A questionnaire was developed to measure the perception of individuals with varied amounts of PSTCE in their programs regarding the effectiveness of their undergraduate teacher education program. Of particular concern, of course, was how programs might meet the objectives of PSTCE, based on the manual, "Implementing Clinical Experiences in Teacher Education Programs: A Handbook for Illinois Institutions of Higher Education" (1979) published by the Illinois State Board of Education. The results of this study are currently being analyzed and will be published within the next few months.

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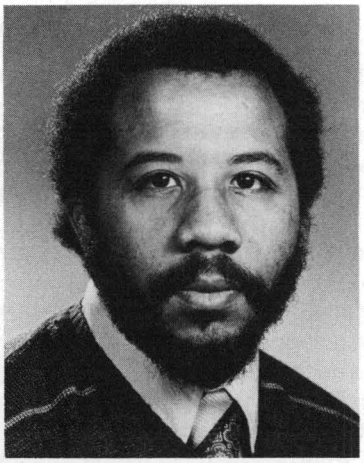
Viewpoint. . .
"On Becoming an Outstanding Teacher and Faculty Member"

Lewis L. Jones



Lewis L. Jones is Assistant Dean, College of Education, University of Cincinnati. His research and teaching interests are in the areas of urban education, policy analysis, and academic governance in higher education.

The faculty members and administrators of my University strongly endorse excellence in teaching. Some of them go so far as to take the idea seriously. Every year the student daily publishes the names of the *best* teachers in the University. The adrenalin flows and the admiration mounts as one watches those proud recipients march across the stage at Commencement to receive their teaching awards. Since I labor daily in the Teacher's College, I decided to offer my colleagues a guaranteed method for winning that coveted prize, thereby allowing them to bask in the ensuing fame and glory. Here is my simple step-by-step kit for winning an award for excellence in teaching.

1. *Give a Party*. Throwing a lively bask is a precondition. Students want to see how their professors live. If you throw a shindig, do not be too lavish. Students are, by definition, poor souls and want to be entertained. They do not like to feel inferior or impoverished. Expensive wine is *verboten*. Beer and chips, yes.

2. *Be Humorous*. Do not be a clown or attempt to be funny if you do not have the natural facility for it. Students like to see professors in control. They worry about their own insecurity and do not like to see a professor hide his/her insecurity through clumsy attempts at being funny. The preferred choice of humor is quick wit and satire. Suggested targets: local city or town, colleagues, President, Deans, Assistant Deans, football team, core courses, Board of Trustees.

3. *Be a Martyr or a Rebel With or Without a Cause*. Students idolize the eccentric leftist, the excellent teacher who did not get reappointed because of her/his poor record of publishing, and the professor who threatens to resign if the Ecology Department is demolished — despite its two professors and three majors. It always helps to be on the verge of termination.

4. *Come Out Consistently in Favor of High Standards and Never Give More Than Two A's*. Students do not like the liberal grader, although they will pack her/his classes. Students like to think that the easy A went to their classmates and that they earned the legitimate A.

5. *Let Your Dress Reflect Your Age — Not Your Preference*. Older professors should appear grandfatherly and dress accordingly. Students see older professors as relatives. Nobody wants a grandfather who dresses like Willie-the-Hobo or Alice Cooper. Young professors must look like they are eight (8) to ten (10) years older than their students.

6. *Be Liberal Politically*. Avoid the political extremes: Marxism or Conservatism. Students see their professors according to a simplistic formula. Liberals are tolerant. Marxists are faceless, unsmiling bores. Conservatives are war mongers. The University equals toleration. Therefore, be a liberal.

7. *Never Show Doubt or Admit Uncertainty in the Classroom*. Students pay good money for answers and authority. They like the professor who demonstrates a command of her or his subject — even if the answers are illogical and cockeyed. Always have an answer, the louder, the better.

8. *Advise Students.* Start each session with a smile and a career-oriented question. Make the student feel her/his self-worth. Help a student draft a resume, apply to law, medical, or graduate school. Be friendly, but not friends. Students like to leave with a sense of accomplishment. An hour of jokes is not their idea of achieving something. Besides, the best jokes are heard at the local student dive.

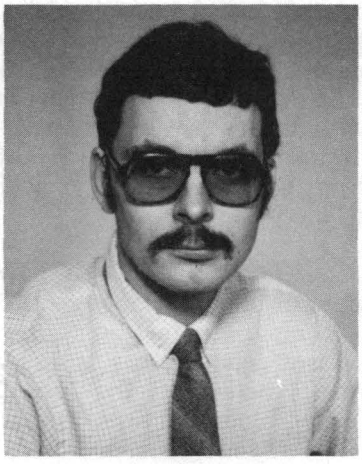
9. *Never Refer to Yourself as a Scholar*. Scholars are cold, calculating and indifferent. Teachers are warm, compassionate, and under weight. Scholars are dead folks: Freud, Marx, Hegel, Descartes. Teachers are Dr. Cuty, Dr. Brooks, Dr. Broader. Scholars write in places like the *Journal of Higher Education* and *Journal of American Historians*. Teachers write comments in the margins of term papers. Scholars smoke pipes and European cigarettes. Teachers jog.

10. *Avoid Innovation and Creativity.* Stay with the familiar. If you allow students to grade themselves or to work cooperatively on a final project, you will be denounced as a dilettante. On the first day of class, announce that two exams will be given, one a multiple choice, the other a short essay. Students prefer consistency more than anything else. Discuss new ideas but never attempt to try them.

All right, I admit it. I have never won a teaching award. I have never walked across the stage at Commencement to receive my plaque for excellence in the classroom. I have never had my picture in the student daily with a full page write-up. Some of you will think that I am using satire to hide my shame and jealousy, that I am taking a dim view of students, and that I am climbing the administrative ladder. Rubbish. Meanwhile, have you heard the one about!!!

Aesthetic Education: What is It?

Douglas A. Kinnett



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In the past decades art educators such as Edmund Feldman (1980), Elliot Eisner (1972) and Leon Frankston (1970) have argued for a shift in major focus from developing skills (creativity) through art production to skills in perception and appreciation of art. To name a few others, W. Hare (1974), J. Schmidt (1973) and Carolyn Korsmeyer (1977) have dealt in detail with the process of appreciation and the philosophical problems related to this issue.

Contrary to the above authors, James Anderson (1972) and David Manzella (1963) have argued for a stronger emphasis on developing artistic skills. Anderson favors maintaining and upgrading the production (process) approach in art education by involving real visual arts practitioners in the teaching.

Indeed, advances have been made in public school art programs for both curriculum approaches. Some state certification requirements have been changed to include a methods course in secondary art appreciation and, until very recently, funding for "artists in the schools" programs was on the increase.

Meanwhile, statements in the music education literature suggest a different shift — from performance to production (creation) — a less radical shift than that for art education, but at the same time, seemingly in the opposite direction.

Music educators R.E. Nye (1964) and L. Larson (1969) have paralleled the perception/appreciation side taken by art educators. These writers argue that high school music should involve music history, music theory, and form analysis as well as performance. They urge teaching music instead of just holding rehearsals. Others propose such things as a one-semester high school elective course which would be devoted exclusively to music appreciation. However, interest in teaching for perception and appreciation at the elementary level is not found as frequently in the music education literature.

Bennett Reimer (1964), who has published in the area of aesthetic education through CEMREL, has written an article concerning the problem of performance and aesthetic sensitivity. He advocates that music education adopt the fostering of aesthetic sensitivity as a major goal. Reimer further explains:

> This (adoption of the goal to foster aesthetic sensitivity) implies that instruction would concentrate on improving the participants' perception of the music they are performing so that their reactions to the music's expressiveness may become deeper and more satisfying. Performance would then become a means to an end, a laboratory for providing aesthetic experiences. (p. 27)

Reimer offers this argument as a counter to claims that aesthetic sensitivity can be developed best through general music, appreciation, allied arts, or humanities courses.

The issue is further complicated by differences in definition and different views concerning the relationship between aesthetic education and the various arts disciplines. To illustrate, an art or music educator might view production and performance as the major focus of his or her field, and perception/appreciation as the major focus of another subject area called aesthetic education. Another educator might see aesthetic education as a course of study which strikes a balance between the two foci. A third educator might view aesthetic education and art or music education in the same fashion favoring either side of the issue and using the terms interchangably. Thus, many views on curriculum issues in aesthetic education appear to hinge on an educator's stance on the production/appreciation issue.

In the fall of 1979 this writer began a national survey intended to assess the level of agreement among leaders in the field of aesthetic education on various issues in curriculum. A three-part questionnaire was mailed to 406 individuals in the United States and Canada. The population was derived from a directory of writers and researchers in aesthetic education published by CEMREL corporation.

Of those 406 who received the questionnaires, 249 (61%) responded — which was a surprisingly good return. Disciplines included were art, music, theatre, and dance education; educational philosophy and psychology; elementary and secondary curriculum; an-

TABLE I
Findings from a National Survey of the Leadership in Aesthetic Education 1979-80 Production/Performance *vs* Perception/Appreciation Issue

	% Agree	% Disagree
1. Aesthetic education should have a roughly equal emphasis between perception/appreciation and production/performance.	70.2	15.3
2. Aesthetic education should emphasize perception and appreciation rather than production and performance.	33.4	52.6
3. Aesthetic education should emphasize production and performance rather than perception and appreciation.	14.0	70.3
4. Perception/appreciation courses in the Arts should be required at the secondary level.	77.5	13.6
5. Perception/appreciation courses in the Arts should be required at the elementary level.	65.4	18.5
6. Aesthetic education should replace existing Arts performance and production courses.	9.2	72.5
7. Performance based courses in two or more of the Arts should be required at the lower elementary level, (Grades 1-4).	66.6	15.6
8. Performance based courses in two or more of the Arts should be required at the upper elementary level, (5-8).	58.3	21.3
9. Performance based courses in two or more of the Arts should be required at the secondary level.	39.3	37.7

thropology, communications, and others. The largest discipline groups were art (167) followed by music (121). Eighty-three percent of the respondents were male and 16% were female. Ninety-three percent were working in higher education during the 1979-80 school year. Sixty-three percent had taught in public schools and 26% said they had published in the *Journal Of Aesthetic Education.*

An elaborate statistical design was developed which allowed for: comparisons of opinions by discipline groups toward selected strategy and goal statements, a closer look at "traditional" and "advocacy" viewpoints, and the development of a consensus definition of aesthetic education. For the purpose of this article, discussion will be limited to the specific findings on opinions toward strategy statements related to the production/performance versus perception/appreciation issue and a general overview of the other findings.

The results of the survey suggest that the leadership favors a "roughly equal" emphasis between production/performance and perception/appreciation approaches. Art and music educators agreed that two or more performance based courses should be required at the lower elementary level but not at the secondary level. They also agreed that perception/appreciation courses should be required at the elementary and secondary levels.

If one were to formulate a "consensus" definition of aesthetic education based just on the findings of this survey it could be read as presented in the following paragraphs:

Aesthetic education is an area of study concerned with learnings in both perception/appreciation and production/performance in the arts.

It is believed that all things have aesthetic qualities but that art forms have more "value" in this regard than the general environment. Appropriate subject matter includes popular, fine, and student art products.

Specifically, an aesthetic education program would require production/performance courses at the lower elementary level only, and perception/appreciation courses at all levels. It would occupy a position and time slot equal to other curriculum areas such as social studies, science, and math.

As a movement in public education, aesthetic education is not intended to replace existing arts courses. Rather, it is expected to provide more balance to existing programs. Teachers may be, but are not required to be, practicing artists, generalists, or specialists. However, they should have a strong background in such things as history, theory, and criticism. Teachers should also have an awareness of the arts and values of other cultures. Among the most appropriate goals for aesthetic education are, in rank order:

(1) to involve students in experiences which have aesthetic qualities;
(2) to involve students in creative processes;
(3) to involve students in critical analysis;
(4) to develop students' criteria for aesthetic judgment; and
(5) to demonstrate the importance and relevance of aesthetic values to the individual.

Does the survey reinforce at all the positions of recognized writers in the field of aesthetic education? The following compares four of these positions with the results of the survey:

1. The view of aesthetic education as an area of study in the broader discipline of value education has been promoted by Harry S. Broudy (1972). A finding of the survey suggests that the leadership is undecided about the appropriateness of aesthetic education in terms of value education.

2. Aesthetic education, as Thomas Munro (1949, 1956) has envisaged, should focus on perception/appreciation rather than production/performance. Findings of the survey suggest that the leadership prefers a roughly equal balance between the two.

3. Harry S. Broudy (1978) and Ralph A. Smith (1970) have argued that aesthetic education should use fine art as the most appropriate content for study. Again, the findings suggest that the leadership finds this to be too limiting.

4. Leon C. Karel (1966) and Geraldine Dimondstein (1974) have proposed an interrelated arts approach. Opinions concerning the appropriateness of this approach were measured and the results suggest that the general concept has gained favor with arts educators (especially in theatre, literature, and communications).

Finally, the survey raises two questions that should receive attention from arts educators:

1. Does aesthetic education when defined as a result of consensus offer any suggestions for methodologies, learnings, activities, or educational outcomes which are not already offered by separate arts disciplines through existing programs?

2. Do the strategy statements and goal statements agreed upon by the leadership seem to constitute a viable educational enterprise?

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